The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 19, 1889.

The Week.

So far as we have been able to ascertain, not one of the fifteen leading editors whom the President has bribed with important offices has ventured to say anything concerning Tanner's removal which was worthy a moment's serious consideration by an intelligent human being. Nearly all their comments have been, like those of the *Tribune* of this city, fit only to be classified among the "jokes" or humorous utterances of the period. Not one of the fifteen editors has even hinted at what he knows to be the truth in the matter—that Tanner's appointment in the first place was an inexcusable blunder, and that his removal was made necessary in order to save the Administration from disgrace and the country from possible bankruptcy. Truth of this kind has to be sought in such unsubsidized Republican journals as the Philadelphia *Inquirer* and *Ledger*, the St. Paul *Pioneer-Press*, the Worcester *Spy*, and a few others whose editors have not been appointed to office. But for them the public would not be able to find the facts in the case outside the Mugwump and Democratic press. The most conspicuous instance that we have seen of the servile effect of Presidential bribery upon a newspaper appears in the Detroit *Tribune*, whose editor was recently appointed a collector of internal revenue. He defended Tanner up to the very moment of his removal, and then bewailed his fate by saying: "We regard it as an unfortunate break in the household of the Administration, and sincerely regret that it could not have been avoided."

The country now waits to see what other representative of the Grand Army Machine shall be appointed as Tanner's successor. Evidently the New York *Press*, whose editor is Commissioner of the Census, did not exaggerate the power of this machine or the President's fear of it. The Boston *Advertiser*, whose editor got his brother appointed to a consulate the other day, accepts the situation, and says: "It now remains for the President to appoint some other member of the Grand Army." Major Merrill of Massachusetts called on the President on Friday, and, according to the *Herald's* correspondent, said that "the occasion called for the appointment of a man of national reputation and universal popularity in the Grand Army, and the appointment could not be delayed without disastrous results." The correspondent adds, what everybody will believe, that "the President seemed impressed with this view."

The Philadelphia *Press* cautiously says, regarding the succession to Tanner, that "the President is hardly likely to make a mistake in filling the office a second time." That depends on whether he keeps his pledges the second time, as he did not the first. It is only necessary that he should follow the rule laid down in his letter of acceptance, but shamelessly broken in the choice of Tanner, that "in appointments to every grade and department, fitness, not party service, should be the essential and discriminating test." It is not encouraging that the test made most prominent in the current discussions of the succession is the relative strength of various candidates with the Grand Army Machine—a machine so powerful that the New York *Press* thought the President worthy of fulsome praise for the alleged courage which he displayed in removing Tanner at the risk of its displeasure. The Philadelphia *Ledger* makes some pertinent remarks upon this point: "It is said that the Grand Army is to be conciliated by the appointment of its late Commander as Commissioner of Pensions. He may be a worthy and proper man, but if he should accept office as the representative of the Grand Army of the Republic or any other organization of soldiers, he will be handicapped, as was Corporal Tanner, from doing his full duty as a public servant, owing allegiance to no other power."

Mr. H. K. Thurber, who as a disseminator of forged English press quotations in behalf of Harrison was not surpassed even by John F. Plummer himself, has been ignored by the Administration in the selection of a site for the new Appraiser's stores, and is naturally indignant. He said last week to a *Times* reporter, in speaking of the selection of Bowling Green:

"It is an outrage—a striking triumph of political influence over the true commercial interests of the city. In full knowledge of the facts, Secretary Windom has chosen a site which was opposed by men representing fully 90 per cent. of the importations physically handled at the Appraiser's stores, and which only had the backing of politicians, real-estate manipulators, and such importers as do their business with the Appraiser by sample. Of course there is an African in the woodpile. It does not require a very keen sight to locate him either."

The African whom Mr. Thurber sees in the woodpile is well known to be "Tom" Platt, who, whatever other service he may have rendered to President Harrison, was never caught circulating forgeries in his behalf. His claim, therefore, is obviously much inferior to Mr. Thurber's, for the latter circulated forgeries by the ton both before and after their true character was exposed. After it had been exposed, he gave public notice that he would make the proper correction in his next batch of circulars, and when the batch came out, it was discovered that his correction consisted in changing the credit line on the most flagrant of the forgeries from "London *Times*" to "a London paper." Zeal like this ought certainly to have some influence with its beneficiary, and we are not surprised at Mr. Thurber's righteous indignation.

The iron and woollen-manufacturers of New England seem to be somewhat dazed by the *Tribune's* assurances that it understands their business interests better than they do themselves. They had been supposing that they knew what was the matter with their own affairs. They knew they were losing business and money, and they came to the conclusion that they had no remedy save in free raw materials. The *Tribune* assures them that they are "deceiving themselves"; that they are "tricky free-traders"; and that if they are not careful, they will incur the wrath of the Pennsylvania iron-manufacturers and Western wool-growers, and be utterly destroyed by having the duties removed from manufactured products. This information that, no matter if their business is going to decay, it is their duty as good Republicans to let it go rather than try to save it at the peril of undermining the protective system, does not strike them as meeting the emergency. We trust that the *Tribune* will read them all out of the party, and make it manifest to everybody that the Republican party is invincibly opposed to tariff revision and reduction of every kind.

A week ago the *Tribune*, meeting the demand of the woollen-men for free wool, laid down the doctrine that "protection cannot be politically maintained or logically justified as a partial or one sided affair. If it does not benefit American labor as a whole, it will be voted down." We had no sooner fairly assimilated this great principle—that is to say, that the woollen-manufacturers were not to be allowed to prosper unless the wool-growers could prosper at the same time—when the following appeared in the same organ addressed to the Boston, Massachusetts, men, who are asking for cheap coal and iron ore in order to enable them to prosper as well as Pennsylvanians:

"In the slow growth of a nation, all parts and all industries cannot advance with equal step. Some must unavoidably pluck the first fruits of any beneficent national policy. The Eastern States were in position to get the lion's share of benefit from protection at the outset, but now Western and Southern producers begin to share the bountiful results, and there are found some Eastern men who deplore that state of things. Here is an Eastern furnace, built by protection, but now abandoned by reason of the cheaper production in Alabama; 'if that is protection,' say some, 'let us have less of it.' But it is a pretty time to object, after pocketing the largest share of the advantages for twenty years. Here is an Eastern textile mill, which Western or Southern competition renders no longer profitable. 'Lower the tariff, so that no more mills shall be erected?' Hardly; protection was never intended for the exclusive benefit of any man or set of men, but for the benefit of the whole country."

Well, then, why do the wool-growers insist on "advancing with equal steps" with the woollen-men? Do they not see that some must unavoidably get more "first fruits" than others? Are they not aware that "protection was never intended for the exclusive benefit of any man or set of men"? Why are they unwilling to be ruined in order that the woollen industry may flourish, supposing that free wool would ruin them? Why do they follow the example of the New

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England iron-men, who insist on "advancing with equal steps" with Pennsylvania? Do they not prove themselves to be really selfish rascals, and are they not ashamed, surrounded as they are by unselfish, disinterested, and patriotic high-tariff men, all spinning, weaving, and mining for the good of their country, to insist on growing wool at a profit?

The story comes from Philadelphia that the well-known Appraiser Leach is following up the policy he initiated about woollens some months ago, by raising the duty on merino carpet wool from 2½ cents per pound to 10 cents, to the great confusion of the carpet-manufacturers, who say, and not without reason, that if his decisions are sustained, it will ruin them. Of course they have protested and appealed, but it will be a good while before they get a decision, and the evil-minded say that Mr. Leach's purpose will be answered if in the meantime the price of wool goes up, and the Western wool-speculators who cornered the wool market soon after the Presidential election can get rid of their stocks at a good advance. Of course this may be a foul slander on a worthy man and a pure Administration, but as long as custom-house officers are allowed to make sudden changes in rates of duty, it is a kind of charge that will continue to be made, and, what is worse, to be believed. There is no man in this community or any other who enjoys enough public confidence to be allowed to do what this Administration is attempting—make sudden and arbitrary changes in the price of leading commodities.

The first document sent out by the Massachusetts Ballot-Act League, designed to instruct political committees and voters in following the methods of the new law, is a compact pamphlet of fifteen pages, which may well serve as a model for use in other States where ballot-reform laws have been adopted. It contains full directions for the proper execution of the law, and gives suggestions to committees which will enable them to see to it that all necessary requirements are met in the preparation of nomination papers, in the form of the ballot, in the proceedings on election day, and in various other matters which will be new to all the voters, both in advance of the next election and at the polls on November 5. The pamphlet contains also a full list of penal offences, and the texts of the new caucus acts and of the Ballot Act. Copies can be obtained upon application to Albert C. Burrage, 89 State Street, Boston.

The first trial of the new Ballot-Reform Law of Minnesota was made at a special election in one of the wards of Minneapolis last week, and the result, like previous trials in Milwaukee and Louisville, completely silenced the opponents of the Australian system. Speaking of it, the St. Paul *Pioneer-Press* says: "The universal verdict that it worked like a charm is uttered in a tone of mild surprise, while the limited area covered and the lightness of the vote are announced as excuses for success. It seems hard to persuade people that the law would not have shown itself utterly unmanageable but for these extraordinary conditions in its favor." The election passed without the slightest confusion or friction, and it was especially remarked that the time consumed in marking and depositing the ballots was much less than had been supposed would be necessary. This has been the experience in every place in which the Australian system has been put in practice. It has always worked simply and smoothly, and the "cumbrous" quality in it which has so alarmed the "Dave" Hill and Tammany variety of statesmen has never been discovered upon actual trial.

Gov. Hill's action in trying to boom himself as a Presidential candidate by having his portrait hung up in the hotels, bar-rooms, and grocery-stores of New England is exciting considerable attention. Opinions differ as to the usefulness of this method of arousing popular sympathy and support. The only immediate precedent is that of the great Powderly of the Knights of Labor. Shortly before the campaign of last year he had something like a half-million lithographs of himself, with his signature in very bold autograph ending in a beautiful flourish, scattered broadcast over the land. They were scarcely issued before the Knights began to go to pieces as an organization, and when the time arrived to nominate Presidential candidates, Mr. Powderly's name was not mentioned in any quarter. Whether the lithographs had any effect one way or another is of course a fine point for investigation. Gov. Hill's photographs may be more useful to him, but the facts that his term as Governor will expire before the opening of the Presidential campaign, and that the election for his successor will be held in 1891, constitute the most formidable obstacle to his ambition.

The signs of the times are not favorable to the various third-party movements. Even the most powerful of them, the Prohibition, is apparently weaker than it has been for several years, if we may judge by the diminished attendance at its State conventions. The National Greenback party has just held a convention at Cincinnati, at which twenty-five delegates assembled. When asked what the programme was to be, the leader of this movement replied: "There will be a speech by me, and afterwards I will read Washington's Farewell Address." That was a pretty accurate summary of the convention's work. What has become of the Randall high-tariff Democracy we are unable to say. It is several months since its leader in the press issued a call for the Democracy to "get together" on the Randall platform. Every Democratic State convention which has been held this year, all of which have assembled since that call was issued, has reaffirmed the national Democratic platform of last year, and most heartily approved President Cleveland's tariff-reform course. One of the former members of the Randall squad is now running for Governor of Ohio on such a tariff-reform platform. It might be timely for the Randall party to assemble and read a farewell address of some kind.

If Congressmen Reed and McKinley are thinking of taking the stump in Virginia in behalf of Mahone, they will have some awkward things to explain. They must, of course, support Mahone as the champion of an honest ballot and a fair count, and if they do this, they will be confronted with his record as a tissue-ballot operator when he was Chairman of a Democratic Congressional committee in 1876. He then sent out bundles of tissue ballots in size a little larger than postage-stamps, with orders that these only should be used by Democratic voters. The law then was that if the number of ballots in the boxes exceeded the number of names on the poll lists, one of the election judges should be blindfolded, and should draw out the number of ballots in excess. An excess was produced by the Democrats voting ten or twenty tissue ballots each. As the negroes voted large ordinary paper ballots, those were the ones which were drawn out by the blindfolded judge. Documents proving this device to have been invented and used by Mahone are in existence, and they will make defence of him awkward for Northern champions of the "poor negro" who take the stump for the "Little Napoleon of Readjustment," as that devout Blaine man, Mr. William Walter Phelps, once called him.

A convention is in session in New Mexico framing a constitution under which it is hoped that the Territory may come into the Union as a State. It is a waste of time. The last census showed that there were in New Mexico 108,721 white and 1,015 colored inhabitants, and that 60 per cent. of all persons above the age of ten years were unable to read. This being the case, a Republican Congress will refuse to admit the Territory, on the ground, so well stated by Mr. George F. Hoar of Massachusetts when New Mexico made a similar application fifteen years ago, that "when Congress is considering the question whether the people of a Territory shall be formed into a State of the Union, *the fact that they cannot perform the duties of American citizenship by voting intelligently on public questions*, the fact that the great body of them cannot understand the laws of the country, cannot read the discussions of political questions, cannot obtain information about their interests from newspapers or magazines, *constitutes a strong reason why we should require such a community to wait for admission until they are better prepared.*" If, however, the conditions were reversed, and New Mexico had 108,721 colored inhabitants against only 1,015 white, even if much more than 60 per cent. of them could not read, a Republican Congress would undoubtedly disregard the fact that "they cannot perform the duties of American citizenship by voting intelligently on public questions," and promptly admit a community of such ignorant people, on the

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ground that they would of course always vote the Republican ticket, and thus give the party another Representative in the House, two additional members of the Senate, and three more Presidential electors.

The Indianapolis *Sentinel* shows the hypocrisy of the Republican cant about the negro by pointing out that, although at least 2,800 votes for Harrison were cast by colored men in Indianapolis, not one of the 175 clerical positions at the disposal of the Republican Federal officials whose headquarters are in Indianapolis is filled by a colored man, the only members of the race employed in any capacity being some colored men who are engaged about the several public buildings in scrubbing floors, cleaning spittoons, and performing other like menial services, which white politicians do not hanker after. It further points out that no colored man has ever been nominated by the Republicans for a State office in Indiana, that there are no colored mayors, sheriffs, auditors, treasurers, city or county clerks, or judges in Indiana, and never have been any, although about half of the counties are Republican—many of them only through the colored vote; and that, although Mr. Harrison has appointed a host of Federal officials in Indiana, not even so much as one little fourth-class post-office has been given to a negro.

The hardest blow which the "Bill to Promote Mendicancy" has yet suffered was administered by the Georgia Legislature last week. Georgia has been one of the most backward of all the Southern States in the matter of public education, showing a large percentage of illiteracy when the last census was taken, and yet appropriating only money enough to keep her schools open three months a year. Consequently Georgia has all along been a chief reliance of Blair, Mayo, and the other Northern men who have been advocating Federal aid to education in the South. "Look at Georgia," they would say. "That great State appropriates only money enough to keep her schools open three months in the year. The schools ought to be open six months, but that would take twice as much money, and the people cannot stand any heavier taxes than they pay now. The Federal Government must come to the rescue, and send from Washington the rest of the money needed to provide an efficient school system." We showed long ago that it was not lack of ability, but only lack of disposition, which prevented Georgia from making adequate appropriations for schools, and that the chief element in fostering this difficulty was the agitation of the Blair bill, which held out the hope of getting the money from the Treasury vaults at Washington, instead of taking it from the pockets of Georgians. The Legislature now confesses the entire truth of this statement, and covers with confusion Blair, Mayo, and the other advocates of mendicancy. On Wednesday week the Senate, by an almost unanimous vote, passed a bill, which is certain to go with equal ease through the House, doubling the length of the school term and correspondingly increasing the appropriations for the support of schools.

One would think that, with all the Federal offices of the city in the hands of sympathetic Machine Republicans, the Boys would be able to wait patiently till their turns came around to get something, but this is not the case in the Sixth Assembly District. The Republican Association of that district has adopted the following sentiment: "Resolved, That we express through the press our *oposition* to Civil Service as it now exists, *oporating* to the *benifit* of the political *oponants* of the Republican party." The Boys were so hungry with long waiting that they had forgotten how to spell—a misfortune which is known to happen to the best of people in times of great nervous strain or physical weariness. Any one can see what a formal obstacle a civil-service examination would be to patriots seeking places who were liable to lapses of this kind. There was great suffering among the Tammany Boys from a similar affliction when they began to enter the civil-service examinations for municipal places, but, if latest accounts are trustworthy, they are able to pass now with almost miraculous ease.

The singing of "a song of welcome" to Mr. Depew on the tug on his arrival is a new feature of these occasions. The name usually given to a song of praise sung in the presence of the object is a hymn, and this one might as well be called so outright. It will have to be called so before long. In a very few years such hymns would be numerous enough to form a "collection," and might be announced by number and verse on the tug, and even "deaconed out," as the New Englanders say, two lines at a time. Mr. Depew's sensations in listening to the song must have been peculiar, because it is such an experience as few men have. We should think that at certain stages in the proceeding, if he have the stomach of most sensible men, he must have felt tempted to clear the tug of his admirers with his trusty walking-stick.

Dr. Allan McLane Hamilton did a good piece of work on Thursday in getting one Mann, the publisher of *Town Topics*, indicted and committed to the Tombs in default of bail for criminal libel. The continued existence and apparent prosperity of this paper are one of the great disgraces of the city. It might have been suppressed long ago if there were among its victims even half-a-dozen with as much pluck as Dr. Hamilton. But the clubs and individuals who buy it and study its disgusting contents are even more to blame than the scamp who gets his living out of it. Hundreds of people pore over its scandalous trash who ought to be ashamed of knowing its name—all because it professes to give "society gossip."

The demand of the London dock laborers that the 1,000 "blacklegs," or "scabs," as our strikers call them, who have been employed during the strike by the dock companies shall be forthwith dismissed, is a quick reduction to absurdity of the misery argument so freely used against the dock companies. The "blacklegs" are clearly worse off than the strikers, or they would not have accepted the work and wages which the strikers refused. If, therefore, the dock companies are bound to keep a certain number of men out of destitution, and if destitution gives an unanswerable claim to employment at a certain rate of pay, the position of the "blacklegs" is vastly stronger than that of the strikers. If Cardinal Manning were consistent, he would now be urging the dock companies not to yield to the strikers, and to shelter the blacklegs. The trouble with the London public is, that the strike has taken them unawares, as the earlier car strikes took us here. They are still in that pristine stage of thought in which, when Labor "demands" something, everybody admits that Labor must be right, else why should he make "the demand"? They have yet to learn, as we have learned, that Labor, like everybody else, is sometimes wrong; that it does not follow that because Labor is apt to be poor the employer is sure to be rich; that, as a matter of fact, most employers are poor and struggling, and that the doctrine that anybody who once employs a man must keep him as long as he pleases to stay at wages fixed by himself, is a monstrous doctrine; that this monstrous doctrine does not become rational because asserted by a strike, and that the misery argument, if used in a strike of unskilled labor, must be fatal to the strikers, if there are, as there usually are, other men waiting to take their places.

The Italians have done a grand thing in erecting, on the spot where he was burnt alive by the Papal Inquisition in Rome, a statue to Giordano Bruno, one of the precursors of modern intellectual freedom, and one of the noblest products of the Italian soil, that fruitful mother of great men. He predicted in his last moments, after years of imprisonment, the rehabilitation of his memory through the triumph of his ideas, and his countrymen have only done one of their most solemn duties in making provision for the perpetual remembrance of his martyrdom. They are finding full justification, if they needed any, in the furious denunciations of them, first by the Pope and then by the Catholic bishops, who are pouring torrents of their peculiar ecclesiastical vituperation on the memory of the murdered philosopher—who was, according both to Cardinal Gibbons and his brother of Montreal, Archbishop Fabre, "an enemy of God and virtue, a man without doctrine or morals, whose revolting crimes brought him under the condemnation of ecclesiastical and civil laws." Yes, and if Archbishop Fabre and his kind had their way to-day, there is hardly a man eminent in science, or literature, or philosophy who would not be "an enemy of God and virtue, a man without doctrine or morals," ripe for their gibbet and their stake. But, thanks to the Brunos of the world, we have clipped their claws, and made their sentences all "sound and fury, signifying nothing."

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THE SUBSIDIZED PRESS.

We hardly expected when President Harrison appointed fifteen of the leading Republican editors to lucrative offices, in defiance of all the best traditions of constitutional government, that the inconvenience—to use a mild word—of the performance would so soon be felt. But it has been made abundantly manifest in the Tanner affair. The great use, we will not say of an independent, but of a friendly press to an administration lies in the warnings it is able to give the official class of the state of public opinion on any particular point. This function of the press is doubly valuable in this country, owing to the remoteness of our political capital from the great centres of affairs, and the consequent state of isolation from the currents of popular thought and feeling in which the President and the members of the Cabinet live. To officials in this position the comments on their doings of friendly critics, such as even strong party papers might furnish, would be invaluable, especially in times of such perplexity and tribulation as Tanner has created. Not only would such comments serve as a guide in shaping a policy, but they would furnish immense help in getting out of a scrape by making it appear that in his mode of getting out of it the President was obeying the voice of his own party. The Tanner trouble has been brewing a good while, and Tanner himself was aggravating it every week by his foolish speeches. The friendly remonstrances of the leading Republican newspapers, offered two or three months ago, might therefore either have stopped Tanner in his folly, or shown the President the necessity of putting some check on him before things came to a crisis.

Such friendly criticism, however, the President could not get from papers whose editors held office under him. They were all afraid of saying something to offend him, or which would seem indelicate coming from salaried men to their employer. Such leading Republican newspapers as the New York *Tribune*, Indianapolis *Journal*, *Iowa State Register*, Utica *Herald*, Detroit *Tribune*, Burlington *Hawkeye* (Iowa), Burlington *Free Press* (Vt.), Kennebec *Journal*, and Buffalo *Commercial Advertiser* were therefore condemned to silence during the whole of Tanner's rise and progress. The President could not learn from them, whom he would trust and listen to, what an unfit appointment it was and what risk he ran in making it of creating serious embarrassment for himself. They knew all this, but they dared not make it known lest he should "bounce" them as he bounces Democrats and Mugwumps. They were therefore silent as the grave during the whole of the Tanner controversy, or at most uttered some faint words of apology for Tanner or some half-hearted abuse of his assailants. So the President and Tanner both went blindly on, in ignorance of what the country was thinking and saying about them, until the explosion came.

The effect on the press itself of bribing the press is seen now to be also deplorable. Most of those who read such newspapers as the above read no others. All they know of what the great world is thinking or saying they get from their favorite organ. When that organ said nothing about Tanner, or if it said anything said something pleasant, the readers, of course, concluded that Tanner was "doing splendidly," and that everybody was satisfied with him. Now, when he is suddenly removed for gross unfitness, they discover that the Mugwump and Democratic papers have been protesting against his appointment and denouncing his doings all along. They therefore, naturally enough, infer that it is the Mugwumps and Democrats who have turned him out, and that the President has succumbed to their dictation, although their organ has kept constantly telling them for the last year that the Mugwumps were all dead. If, on the other hand, they hear nothing of the Mugwump and Democratic assaults, Tanner's removal must seem to them sudden and even capricious, their own organs having in no way prepared them for it, and the President must suffer accordingly in their estimation; whereas, had the organs done their duty, they would see in the removal the natural and unavoidable and meritorious correction of a mistake. No wonder that good Republican organ the Wheeling *Intelligencer* warned the Administration before the removal was made, that "the fire of the Mugwump and Democratic press would not be a good reason for it"—that is, a reason which the Administration could afford to give. But how many Republicans there must be in the rural districts who are unable to see any other reason.

The truth is, that of the many extraordinary things that President Harrison has done, none was so extraordinary as his publicly taking the leading editors of his own party into his pay. Nothing quite like it has ever occurred since the newspaper press became a power in parliamentary countries. Usually the first step taken by a régime which means to be corrupt in its methods is to purchase the silence or applause of the principal editors for cash, but it is generally done secretly. The money is called "a reptile fund," and the transaction only leaks out on criminal trials or in long-subsequent biographical revelations. It must stand to the eternal discredit of the American press that so many of its leading conductors were ready to take their pay openly, and not even in a lump sum, but in monthly instalments.

"THE NATION'S DEBT TO THE SOLDIER."

The audacious attempt of the Grand Army Machine to seize control of the United States Government, so far as its operations affect the interests of those who served in the Union Army during the civil war, promises to do a good deal towards clearing the air and leading to sound conclusions. It was high time that people should think seriously about the fundamental principles involved in the pension question, and they are bound to think when they find an organization of a few hundred thousand voters insisting upon the right to govern eleven millions of voters. There has been a great deal of loose talk about "the nation's debt to the soldier," and the public has good-naturedly kept quiet while demagogues have encouraged the members of the Grand Army to go on increasing their demands, until at last they assert their right to supreme control over the Treasury of the Union. The Tanner incident will serve the good purpose of causing people to stop and examine into the nature of this so-called debt, the collection of which the alleged creditors are pressing with such impudence.

Lincoln's first call for volunteers appealed to patriots throughout the North, and for some time after the firing on Fort Sumter the Union armies were filled with volunteers whose motives were as unselfish as ever carried men into the field. But as year after year passed, while the discipline and effectiveness of the Union forces steadily rose, the standard of the soldiers as unselfish patriots steadily sank. The appeal to patriotism no longer, as at first, sufficed to fill the quotas of the various States. It became necessary to offer larger and larger premiums to secure men whom patriotism alone would not impel into the ranks. Finally, even bounties of hundreds of dollars apiece would no longer serve the purpose. Men could not be bought to serve as soldiers in sufficient numbers, and force had to be used in many parts of the North. Thus the unselfish volunteer of 1861 was succeeded by the man who "figured on the problem" of getting shot, and was ready to take his chances if he could get enough hundred dollars in cold cash, and he in turn by the man who could not be hired to turn soldier by any number of hundred dollars, but had to be made to serve by "the strong arm of the Government" through the draft.

Anybody who lived in a village of any Northern State during the civil war can recall personal cases which illustrate the steady lowering of the tone of those who went from it into the army as the years passed. Of course, there were exceptions—cases where men of the truest patriotism did not volunteer at first, because family duties seemed to demand their presence at home, and finally came to recognize the call of the country as superior; but these exceptions only prove the rule that the men who joined the army in 1863, 1864, and 1865 did not rank anywhere near so high in the scale of patriotism as those who enlisted in the first year or two of the struggle.

Truth requires the further statement that many of these later accessions to the Union Army were not merely lacking in patriotism, but that they were also worthless and often vicious characters. These were the men who formed the class of "bounty-jumpers," in their attempts to get more than one premium for their enlistment; who feigned illness and sought the hospital in times of danger; who could never be depended upon if they were forced into an engagement; who were ready to desert at the first opportunity. They were a source of constant anxiety to their commanders, and of constant disgust to their patriotic and courageous comrades. Unhap-

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pily, the number of this class was not small, as any candid observer will testify. In an army where the enlistments rose into the millions, the soldiers who have no claim whatever to be called patriots must have been tens, and even hundreds, of thousands.

The politicians who cater to "the soldier vote" have always kept these ugly facts out of sight. They have flattered the vanity of the class by telling them that every soldier was a patriot to whom "the country owes a debt which it can never pay," and that they ought to demand whatever partial payments they would like. Too many newspapers have sustained this position of the stump-speakers. The result is, that the Grand Army Machine has come to demand whatever it wants. Major William Warner, who was its choice for Tanner's successor, and consequently was offered the place by the President, in a speech at the recent Milwaukee encampment declared for a pension to every man who served for any length of time in the army, and insisted that "these men"—the bounty-jumpers, the shirks, the cowards, the deserters, as well as the brave patriots—"have claims upon the State at least equal to that of the bond-holders."

It was high time to call a halt in this mad rush of demagogism and rapacity. Happily, the Tanner incident promises to serve this purpose. Everything connected with the affair helps to bring out in strong relief the degradation of the soldier ideal by the Grand Army Machine, and the danger to the State from the growing power of this Machine. The very fact that such a worthless fellow as Tanner was the favorite of this Machine, and was forced by it upon the President for an office which he was notoriously incompetent to fill, was of itself enough to open people's eyes. The circumstances of his removal will arrest the attention of the nation. When it was reported that he was to be turned out, despatches of this sort began pouring in upon him from Grand Army men in various parts of the country:

"Eighty-two thousand Republican majority in Kansas demands your retention in office. Hold the fort, for we are coming! The loyal sentiment is with you."

"Don't surrender to the brigadiers; the G. A. R. is with you. You are doing right. Don't be bulldozed."

"Bully for you, Jim. You are doing exactly right, and if Harrison interferes with you, he'll hear from us."

"The survivors of the Union Army in this vicinity congratulate you upon your splendid administration of the Pension Office. We cannot believe that President Harrison will dispense with you. If he does, we will see him later."

"The G. A. R. boys here are with you to a man. You are the first enlisted man to be given a prominent office. We want you to hold it. Do not be intimidated by the shoulder-straps."

"We are with you. If the Administration does not sustain you fully, good-by Foraker."

"You are the pride and joy of the G. A. R. Don't surrender. Don't resign. Harrison dare not remove you."

"By the removal of Mr. Tanner," says Major Merrill, of Massachusetts, a former commander of the Grand Army, "the President has aroused the indignation of Grand Army men all over the country." So great is this indignation, and the consequent danger of the President who aroused it, that it is reported—and there is nothing incredible about the report—that it has been thought prudent to surround Gen. Harrison with detectives, to protect him from possible personal assaults at the hands of wrathful Grand Army men.

Such ugly facts as these will do a great deal more than any amount of argument to show how much humbug there has been in the talk about "the nation's debt to the soldier." The plain fact is, that there are a great many soldiers to whom the nation owes no gratitude at all. They became soldiers from greed or necessity, rather than from patriotism, and did their best to avoid all danger of getting hurt. If they were, nevertheless, wounded or disabled in service, they should be given pensions, because the Government contracted to give pensions in such cases; but that is all which should be done for them. To give every bummer or coward whose name appears on the army rolls $12 a month for the rest of his life, which is what a service pension means, would be the grossest of outrages against patriotism itself.

WHAT SHALL WE SAY TO THE SOUTH AMERICANS?

When one has invited twenty gentlemen to come to his house and discuss with him any topic any one of the invited may propose, it is not to be expected that when the gentlemen have assembled, the host will peremptorily exclude any topic. The United States, by a solemn piece of legislation, have invited delegates from South America, Central America, Hayti, and Santo Domingo, to join delegates from our North America (including Mexico), to convene in Washington for a conference over topics enumerated in the law, and also over any other topic any invited State may suggest. It has been recently put about from Washington that the State Department will endeavor to exclude political topics, and confine discussion and action to economic topics, such as increasing the markets for the products of each State. A "customs union" is one of the objects specified in the law. It is an object political as well as diplomatic. If Mexico or Central America (including the five States of Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Salvador), or the Republic of Colombia, wish the Conference to discuss and act on the Monroe doctrine or the neutralization (in the interest of Europe) of a canal at Panama or at Nicaragua, who besides a majority of the States represented can say "Nay"? Assuming that the Monroe doctrine and canal neutralization are among the topics to be by the United States suppressed if presented in the Conference, there will remain a topic which is included in the objects for which the Conference has been convened, and in which some of the States invited are intensely interested. It is the impediment in the way of the coming of South American wools into our markets—an impediment interposed by the severe customs tax, averaging some 40 per cent. ad valorem, thereon levied at our ports.

One of the governments invited—and one is enough to illustrate what we say—is that of the Argentine Republic, with an area of one million and a half of square miles, a territory as large as all central and western Europe combined, and an increasing population, now not less than 3,000,000, and a chief city of over a fifth of a million. That population is largely of European birth. There are over 200,000 Europeans in one of the fourteen provinces. The republic has now more than 18,000,000 horned cattle, and not far from 140,000,000 sheep, of which last at least one-quarter are owned by Scotchmen and Irishmen. The quantity of wool, cereals, hides, and tallow which the Argentine Republic will, in the near future, have for sale to foreigners, cannot now be estimated by anybody, so vast is the promise of the country. There are experts who predict that the Argentine Republic can and will supply the world's demand for wool, and by that competition woollens and worsteds will, in the end, be cheaper relatively than cottons.

What will our delegates to this Conference be directed by our President Harrison to answer when, by the orders of the President of the Argentine Republic, his delegates address our delegates thus: "Your Government has invited the Argentine Republic here to say what it wishes done to increase the sale of Argentine products in the markets of the United States of North America. In response to your courteous invitation we say that we ask that your customs tax on wool be removed. If you say that, under the favored-nation clauses in your treaties, you cannot treat us better than you treat Australia and other wool-producers, then we ask that *all* imported wool be untaxed by your Congress"?

Although experts differ, there is a tendency of proof to show that there are only two really distinct varieties of sheep, the long-wooled and the short-wooled, from which come woollens and worsteds. Of both of these Prof. Archer gives thirty-two original varieties, four of which he apportions to Europe, fifteen to Asia, eleven to Africa, and only two to America, namely, the West Indian sheep found in Jamaica and the Brazilian sheep. The Spanish or merino type is by every one put first. Spain has fallen off as a wool-producing country, and because her merino type has been transplanted. It is due to George III. that this splendid breed came to England. The first English Merino Society was formed in 1811. Australia never had native sheep, but now she exports over 1,283,350 bales of wool. The British Kingdom, the Australian colonies, and the Cape have now 115,000,000 sheep and a clip of 600,000,000 pounds of wool. France had, in 1885, only 22,616,547 sheep. Spain has fewer than France. In all the dominions of Russia there were in 1882 only 51,689,088 sheep. Germany has 22,000,000, Austria nearly 4,000,000, Italy 8,596,108, Sweden and Denmark and Norway only 4,500,000. All Europe has only 171,866,965. The United States (ourselves) had in 1885 only 48,322,331. British North America has only about 3,000,000. So that, apart from Europe and Australia, the country most in prominence now in wool production is the

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Argentine Republic and the region of the La Plata. Already the Argentine Republic is only the second government in supplying wools, the chief part of which are of the merino type. The Argentine fleece is rapidly increasing in weight, and improved methods are making it more cleanly. The La Plata Valley and the Argentine Republic have now quite three times as many sheep as we have. Of 58,000,000 sheep in 1883 in one province, Buenos Ayres had 32,000,000 belonging to Argentines, 18,000,000 to Irishmen and Scotchmen, and 8,000,000 to other nationalities. Formerly Argentine wool could not be used, excepting for common fabrics, but now it has a more clean and a firmer staple. There are many sanguine persons who believe that if the Argentine Republic can have an end of revolt and revolution, and if mechanical contrivances for cleaning the wools go on as recently, the future of wool-growing is hers, and she can supply the wool-consumption of the world, and, by greatly reduced prices, defy competition.

What she wishes of us a blind man can see. Will President Harrison, Secretary Blaine, and a Republican Congress give to her free trade with us in wool, if she will give to us free trade in all the things we can make or produce? If not, why did we invite her to our Congress of the three Americas?

SPANISH-AMERICAN NATIONALITY.

An element of great importance in the question of our commercial relations with South America is the intense and growing spirit of nationality cherished by the rulers and the people of the leading Powers of Spanish America, and their unbounded hopes of future development. This element has been too much neglected by our press, and, it is to be feared, by the promoters of the coming Conference at Washington. Indeed, our common manner of speech in reference to South American trade runs against this rising sense of nationality with peculiar offensiveness. We speak about our purpose to "capture" a large part of that trade. Our Congressmen give notice that we are going to "seize" upon some of the profits which European exporters to the lands south of us are now enjoying. Nothing could be more fatuous. Let any one read the official literature of the principal countries of South America, and he will everywhere meet with the language of a strenuous national pride—a language that finds its best parallel in the bumptiousness and touchiness of our own public documents of about 1840.

Take the following, translated from the message of President Celman to the Argentine Congress, May, 1887:

"With our spirits calmed after the agitation caused by the last electoral contest, we may pause a moment to trace the road hitherto traversed by the republic, and to examine with serenity her present situation, in order that we may pursue with renewed zeal that path of labor which is the law of every life, and that we may do it under the stimulus of the progress already achieved and of the magnificent destiny to which the future calls us. If we glance over the vast extent of our territory, we shall discover on every hand a people unmistakably devoted to labor, to the supremacy of peace, and to the sovereignty of the law—a people growing rich at a rapid rate, while giving great attention to education and making advance in the truest prosperity, strong in the consciousness of their sovereign rights and accustomed to exercise them peacefully, a people in whom the national sentiment is daily strengthening."

Even Venezuela has enough of the same spirit to inspire her Secretary of State to speak of his country as determined to defend her rights to "that section of South America which is clearly reserved, as by a providential dispensation, to be the emporium of that America to which the Spanish discoverers applied the name of El Dorado, in view of its natural greatness and inexhaustible resources."

Nor is this all froth—at least not in the cases of Chili, Brazil, and the Argentine Republic, the three friendly competitors for the supremacy of South America. The immense quickening of their trade and development of their natural resources and extension of their systems of internal improvement rival in rapidity and proportions anything our own country has ever known. They feel that the future is theirs, and that it is secure. The streams of European emigration are now turning their way. European capital is poured freely into their hands. Their unoccupied lands are being rapidly taken up. Marauding Indian tribes are being driven beyond their frontiers. Political affairs are settling down into stability. National credit is better than ever before. If their social life is yet crude and their public education deficient, that is a help rather than a hindrance to a swollen feeling of national pride based upon material wealth.

There can be no doubt that they have this pride in a high degree; and we have only to reflect how we should have regarded talk of the patronizing kind we indulge in towards them, if it had been addressed to us in 1840, to understand the mingled rage and resentment with which they read the indiscreet utterances of some of our public men. For our history and our institutions they have the greatest regard; our inventive and manufacturing skill they are eager to utilize and imitate; our trade they would welcome on fair terms. But they are bound to maintain their national dignity. They will be neither hoodwinked nor coerced, and many things make them think we should like to both hoodwink and coerce them. Certainly they are in a position to declare their commercial independence so far as we are concerned. And it cannot be too strongly impressed upon our diplomatists and business men that any measures proposed to enlarge our South American trade which are not conceived in a spirit of the truest deference to the feeling of nationality which is as near the hearts of South Americans as our own, are foredoomed to failure.

COLLEGES WITHOUT TEMPTATION.

We have received an inquiry from an anxious mother, on her own behalf and that of others similarly situated, whether we can recommend a college "where the professors make a persistent, united effort to save the students from the temptation to drink," and whether we know of any college "which has any sufficient safeguards against this temptation." We have no difficulty in saying frankly that we do not. We know of no college where the professors "make a persistent and united effort" to save a young man from any temptation, except by setting him a good example. We are not quite sure that we know what our correspondent means by "a persistent and united effort." There are only two things that it can mean: one is preaching temperance to the young man, and the other is watching him so that he can get nothing intoxicating to drink, or can only get it with great difficulty. We all know by experience that preaching temperance to young men is not a very effective preventive, and yet this is all that professors can reasonably be expected to do. They cannot watch young men night and day to see that they get hold of no liquors. They could not do so at all unless they had the students under military discipline and restraint, as at West Point. As matters stand, the teaching work of professors takes all their time, and all their time is not enough. If they had to add police work to their professional work, life would be intolerable to them, and neither work would be well done. We may also add that they are very inadequately paid for what they do now.

We will now go a little further, and say that in our opinion parents who expect to devolve on other people the task of keeping their sons out of temptation after they reach the collegiate age, would do well to keep them at home. Keeping young men of the collegiate age out of temptation is essentially parents' work. It cannot be delegated or imposed on anybody else, except, as we have said, by putting the youth in barracks under military discipline. No civil college in this country is properly organized for any such duty. The professor is a teacher, but not a guardian in the proper sense of that term. His business is to teach young men who want to learn, and get rid of them if they will not learn. It is not his business to keep them out of harm's way by any extraordinary precautions. If parents think their son is unequal to the temptations to which the inevitable freedom of college life exposes him, the proper remedy is not to commit his morals to the care of a poor, hard-worked professor, who is already staggering under the weight of his didactic load, but to keep the youth at home. A youth who needs watching, who cannot be trusted to walk the streets alone, is best and most effectively watched by his father and mother. Their espionage is the only espionage which will not demoralize him, and their remonstrances on his manners and excesses are the remonstrances most likely to prove effectual. No professor can play the detective very long without serious injury to his influence as a teacher, and without developing a certain pride on the part of the students in getting the better of him.

Expectations such as our correspondent entertains about college discipline are, in our mind, based on a wholly mistaken view of the function of colleges, and one to which the colleges themselves have given too much

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countenance. Parents who have never attempted to maintain any discipline in their own households, and who bring up their boys without reverence, without refinement, and without self-restraint, expect to get rid of the responsibility for their morals, when the age of puberty comes, by packing them off to college, and charging the professors with the duty of seeing not only that they are diligent in their studies, but also virtuous in their lives. There is no college in the country fit for any such task. It is an abuse of collegiate funds and discipline to undertake it, and we, for our part, hope to see the day when no college will pretend, as some of them do now, to undertake it. The next great step in advance in collegiate education in this country will, we believe, be the resolute shutting of the doors on all boys who are not eager to learn, and who are not willing, while at college, to lead scholastic lives. The waste of endowments and of professors and libraries and laboratories in this country on drones and dunces and idlers is now enormous. Every college has a large proportion of young men who go there either to amuse themselves or to secure the social *cachet* of a degree, and to whom neither punishments nor remonstrances can give a serious turn. Employing professors to lecture to them and mark them and scold them, is a terrible waste of time, labor, and money. They ought to be got rid of very promptly. Colleges should be reserved for studious men about whom their mothers and fathers are not anxious, and to whom the opportunities which college life gives are a precious boon, and who in college contract or confirm habits of industry. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that one-third of the young men who go to college now lose the habits of industry they have acquired at school, and come out into the world, with their degree, less fitted for continuous labor than when they went in.

Of course it is in most cases difficult to say how college life will affect any particular youth until he has tried it. Many a man goes into college studious, and soon becomes idle; many another goes in lazy, and becomes studious and industrious. The experiment has often to be made before any final decision can be reached. But fathers and mothers ought to make up their minds once for all that the college is the world; that when a boy goes to college, he starts in life just as when he goes into business. If they think he cannot safely as yet be exposed to the ordinary temptations of life, the parental roof is the best place for him. If he will not keep out of the dramshop for his mother's or father's sake, he will not do it for the sake of the president or professors.

Anxious parents who are looking for colleges without temptation, might readily get a great deal of comfort by studying French experience in this matter. In France the watching system to the fullest extent exists. Every dormitory has "a judas" in the door through which "the rector" can peep at the young hopefuls at all hours. The students are never out of sight of the authorities, and their morals are looked after with as much care as the fondest mother could desire. The failure of this system on the moral side is acknowledged on all hands, and in fact it seems to be kept up rather for the sake of the masters and parents than for that of the youths. It is held to be the duty of elders to watch the young, and they do it for the good of their own souls, no matter what the effect on the young may be. If parents would use more discretion in deciding whether their boys are fit for college on the moral side, we should hear fewer denunciations of professors for letting them go astray. This is essentially the parent's duty. And it is also his duty to take the boy away from college promptly as soon as he discovers the youth does not care for it, or likes it simply for the good-fellowship and the games.

WASHINGTON AS AN EMPLOYER OF LABOR.

WASHINGTON, August 9, 1889.

THE study of the economy of a Virginian plantation in colonial days has been thus far of a very superficial character, and is generally summed up by the assertion that the extravagance of the planter ran him in debt to the factor, and in the end compelled him to sacrifice his estates. This is true of many examples that could be cited, but it is not true of the really well-conducted plantation; and the examination of some early plantation records and accounts of Washington may prove of advantage in showing that executive talent was all that was required to bring the planter to opulence. It will be impossible to treat in one article all the interesting points raised by these ledgers, as carefully and neatly kept as if he were a bookkeeper in a banking-house, whose position depended upon his accuracy and clear penmanship. One subject may be presented—the labor employed on a plantation.

Washington, it should be remembered, at first occupied Mount Vernon as a tenant, for Lawrence Washington had left the estate to his widow during her lifetime. From 1755 to 1761 he paid a rent to Mrs. George Lee (the widow having again married) for the Mount Vernon tract and slaves upon it, a rent that averaged about £87 a year. What the exact size of the estate was at Lawrence's death I have not been able to determine; but in 1760 Washington paid quit-rents on 1,250 acres in King George County; on 2,626 acres in Fairfax County, all of which were included in the Mount Vernon estate; on 2,315 acres in Frederick, and 240 acres in Hampshire. So that at the time of making his return (May, 1760), he was in the possession or use of 6,431, situated in four counties—certainly a goodly property for one under twenty-nine years of age.

The care of such an estate required much labor, and it is certain that the young owner used every acre of land to the best advantage. Personal supervision of so widely scattered holdings was out of the question, and to overseers was intrusted the management of the outlying properties, but they were subject to Washington's orders in all things. This division of management became more necessary as the estates were enlarged; and as Washington was an eager though shrewd buyer of land, large additions were made each year. So that we find in 1769 that he held in the northern neck alone (including the counties of Fairfax, Frederick [afterwards Berkeley], King George, Hampshire, Loudoun, and Fauquier) upwards of 12,260 acres—a possession nearly double what was noted ten years before. This takes no account of his active speculation in lands on the Ohio, where, in his own right and by purchase, he held claims to many thousands of as yet unlocated lands, or to his thousands in the Dismal Swamp. The cultivation of even a part of this estate required much care, attention, and labor, and the number of help in one form or another was not inconsiderable. The returns to the tax and levy collectors give some clue to the number, as the slave paid the same tax as the white freeman. In 1760, forty-nine taxables were returned from all the holdings; in 1770, the taxables on the Fairfax County estates alone amounted to 135.

This labor was of three kinds: the slave, the indentured servant, and the hired laborer. The slave was, of course, purchased generally in open market, or from some recently arrived "Guinea" ship, whose owners were probably New England merchants who participated in that circle of commercial profit—horses and cows to the West Indies, sugar from the West Indies to New England, rum from New England to the coast of Africa, blacks from Africa to the Southern Colonies and West Indies. A "likely" slave was worth in Virginia in 1754-60 about £50. In 1756 Washington bought of the Governor a negro woman and slave for £60, and two years before a negro woman, Clio, for £50. The possession, then, of forty blacks represented in itself quite a fortune for those days. But it was also the custom to "hire" slaves, especially skilled slaves who had been taught some "art or mystery" which made them very acceptable on a plantation, where all the every-day wants had to be supplied in some way from within, as importation required all of six months, and an uncertain satisfaction at that. Ten pounds a year, payable in Virginia currency, or in tobacco—that better medium of exchange, because exportable—were a fair wage for such a slave. In one instance I find that Washington obtained the use of three—two men and a woman—for £20, or 2,800 pounds of tobacco a year; but the labor must have been of a very ordinary kind to come so cheap.

For ordinary field-work, slave labor was suitable; for other tasks a better and more intelligent quality was needed, and this was supplied by indentured or "covenant" servants, and by hired whites. The covenant servant agreed to serve a captain or "his assigns" for a certain number of years (generally five), on condition of being taken to America. This arrangement was thus a composition for the passage, and, on arrival in one of the colonies, the servant was sold for the time covenanted to the highest bidder. For that time he became a possession of his buyer, and, as the prices for servants were not extravagant, and they were usually of an intelligent description, they readily found a market for their talents. It is said that Washington himself received his early training at the hands of an indentured servant, and that Archibald Alexander, whose descendants have maintained the reputation he acquired, was taught the rudiments of Latin by such an one. In Maryland, just before the defeat of Braddock, when the British recruiting officers did not hesitate to take indentured servants for the ranks, Gov. Sharpe, in his protest, asserted that "the planters' fortunes here consist in the number of their servants (who are purchased at high rates), much as the estates of an English farmer do in the multitude of cattle." In the previous war, indentured servants had been impressed in the New England colonies to garrison the frontier posts; and such was the demand for this quality of labor that England contracted for the transportation of her felons and convicts to the colonies, to be sold for a

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term of years as servants. When the Revolution put a stop to that vent for this questionable merchandise, galleys were constructed on the Thames, and to them were the malefactors consigned, unless, as it was stated, they were sent to the ranks to fight against the colonists. The indentured servant has not received the attention from economists that he deserves, being between the slave and the hired freeman, and an important factor in a slave-holding community. I shall return to him in a later article.

The hired freeman may have been some indentured servant whose period of servitude had expired, and who preferred to continue at his trade in preference to taking up land in the back country and starting out for himself. He was hired by the year, at wages depending upon his skill, but ranging from £20 to £40 a year. A house servant received less in money. John Alton and Thomas Bishop, body servants of Washington, received £10 and £13 a year respectively, and, of course, all the necessaries of life, save clothing. In 1756, Bishop's wages were given at £6 and clothing, certainly not exorbitant pay, as gauged by modern rates. A joiner engaged to work on the estate for one year—"that is to say, he shall work duly from sunrise to sunset allowing proper times only for eating, and if he shall lose any time at his said work either by negligence, sickness, or private business of his own, the days and hours so lost are to be made up at the year's end." For that he was to receive £25, a house, and "good and wholesome provisions." That was a contract made in 1759. In 1770 a blacksmith received £32, a house, and provisions. In 1771 a carpenter was hired for ten months for £25, a house, 300 pounds of pork, and three barrels of corn. A gardener received £25, "washing, lodging, and diet," for he was to be on the home plantation. The highest wages noted are those of a miller—£80 a year and some plantation produce. In harvest time whites were hired for 5 shillings a day, and a bonus of $3 for coming, as many of them were hired from distant places.

The pay and duties of an overseer were of a more complex nature. Edward Violett, planter, was placed over the Bullskin Plantation in Frederick County as overseer. He was enjoined to "use his utmost endeavors to make a large and good crop of tobacco, corn, and what else may be required"; to take all necessary and proper care of the negroes on the place, using them with humanity and discretion; to take "all imaginable care of the stock," and exert his utmost skill and industry to raise of each sort as many as he can; he was to make as much butter as possible from the milk of the cows, to prepare the tobacco for the market so "that it may appear at inspection as clean and as neat as tobacco well can"; the corn was to be measured out "with the greatest fugality" as needed; he was to furnish a bed, and keep no horse. For this he was to receive two clear shares of the tobacco and grain, some pork and a young steer, and four shoats; and his wife, one-fourth of the butter made. The value of these allowances ranged from £27 to £34 a year, so that, with all his increased responsibilities, the wages of the overseer was nearly what a carpenter or gardener received. These are merely the general outlines of the contracts, many details being omitted.

Was this system of labor profitable? In the case of one occupation I find unusually detailed statements that are interesting. All weaving was done on the estate by Thomas Davies, and an account was minutely kept of the day on which the thread was delivered, the weight of the thread, the time occupied in weaving; the length, breadth, weight, and number of hundreds in the width; the price per yard and the "shute" or filling required. This item of weaving was by no means a small one in the estate's accounts. In 1768 Washington had made on his own account 815¾ yards of linen cloth, 365¼ yards of woollen, 144½ yards of linsey, and 40 yards of cotton, making a total of 1,365½ yards, the cost of spinning and weaving of which was £30 15s. 10d., no account being taken of the cost of the materials used. But attached to this statement occurs one of those memoranda which go far to show the particular bent of Washington's mind. He enters into an estimate of the comparative cost of manufacturing and importing these 1,365½ yards, and its results do not show much of a balance in favor of the home industry. For he could have imported them for £105.7.3, and the cost of making on the plantation was £76.7.4, leaving a balance of £28.19.11, which he notes "is all that is to defray the expence of spinning, hire of one white woman and 5 negroe girls, cloathing, victualling, wheels, etc." The product of the home loom must also have been of an inferior quality, yet one cannot but be surprised at the kinds of fabrics made; for in this statement I find mentioned striped woollen, woollen plaided, cotton striped, linen, wool-birdseye, cotton filled with wool, linsey, M.'s & O.'s, cotton-India dimity, cotton jump stripe, linen filled with tow, cotton striped with silk, Roman M., Janes twilled, huccabac, broadcloth, counterpain, birdseye diaper, Kirsey wool, barragon, fustian, bed-ticking, herring-box and shalloon (I give his spelling in each case). That is the only estimate that can now be cited.

Not the least interesting part of these contracts is the care which Washington displayed in obtaining help of good character. The men are expressly enjoined to "behave themselves soberly and diligently, in all respects endeavoring by a prudent and commendable conduct to gain the good esteem and liking of their employer." One man was received into service without a proper recommendation; Washington stipulated that it may and shall be lawful "if he should hear anything disadvantageous of the man's character, or find him in any respect dishonest or unfaithful, or if upon tryal he should prove idle and negligent, either in his own work or in looking after those who may be put under his charge," to turn him off at any time. The overseers were ordered to prevent the negroes from running about or visiting without his consent, and also to forbid strange negroes frequenting their quarters without lawful excuses for so doing. One overseer is informed that "there are a number of whiskey stills very contiguous to the plantation, and many idle, drunken, and dissolute people continually resorting the same, priding themselves in debauching sober and well-inclined persons," and is laid under a promise to "avoid them as he ought."

In spite of his care, however, he sometimes got hold of some hard characters. In one case where an overseer worked two horses so as to be unfit for plantation purposes, he became "my rascally overseer." John Beard, a wagoner, "after driving my waggon about 4 months at the rate of £17.10 per annum, behaved so remarkably ill as to oblige me to turn him off, not before I had first sustained some loss by his running me in debt in many places of the road he used to travel." John Winter, a painter, "before he had near finished painting my house, stole a good deal of my paint and oyl, and apprehensive of justice ran off." In 1774 he advertised two runaway servants, one a joiner and the other a brickmaker, offering a reward of forty dollars for their return. Careful manager as he was, the indolence and shiftless behavior of his help were a severe trial to him, and his journals give evidence of occasional outbursts of indignation. At the same time there are more frequent records of his kindness to his servants, of his care for them when sick, and of his thoughts for their comfort and welfare.

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

THE FINE ARTS AT THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

VI.—THE RETROSPECTIVE EXHIBITION OF FRENCH ART.

PARIS, August 14, 1889.

FOR two men at least, the Retrospective Exhibition is a veritable triumph—Millet and Corot. Especially interesting just at this time, when the fame of "The Angelus" has been spread abroad—and it has been proclaimed far and near as *the* masterpiece of Millet—is the collection of thirteen of his pictures brought together at this exhibition. The most important of the works of his earlier period, "The Finding of Œdipus" ("Œdipe détaché de l'arbre," Salon of 1847), is here, together with a smaller picture of the same epoch, "Nymph and Satyr"; and the series is closed with "Peasants Bringing in a Calf Born in the Fields" (Salon of 1864), and "Sheepfold—Moonlight" (Universal Exposition of 1867). It includes "The Sheepshearer" (Salon of 1853), "The Hog-Killing," "The Gleaners" (Salon of 1857), and the "Peasant Leaning on his Hoe" (Salon of 1863). These celebrated pictures, together with five others of less importance, form such an exhibition of Millet's work as has not been seen since the one made after his death in 1875. Whether we consider him as the subtle colorist, the painter of luminous flesh, the master of glowing light, and of clear transparent shadow, in the semi-classical work of the earlier period, or as the poet-painter of peasants' toil, investing his subjects with the true sentiment of the fields, and interpreting with sympathetic feeling and virile brush the ever-changing beauty, the lovely harmonies of nature in earth and air, in the later one, when his glorious talent reached its full development, we are overpowered by the greatness of the man, and lost in admiration of such consummate art. "The Sheepshearer," a young peasant woman with a pair of shears in her hand, clipping the wool from a sheep stretched out on a table before her, is one of the first works painted by Millet in his second period. It is an important work, though more ordinary in color than later pictures, resembling in its scheme of reds and blues "La Fileuse," a celebrated picture owned in America. "The Hog-Killing" and "Bringing Home the Calf" are chiefly remarkable for puissant color, the first being of the half-dozen most noted of his works. "The Sheepfold," with its wonderful effect of light from the rising moon, is a piece of painting that is simply marvellous in its way, and, with "The Haystacks," "Cousin Village," and "Sheep Pens," shows very well Millet's successful treatment of landscape.

It is useless to attempt to describe the varying charm of each of these works. These simple indications of their subjects and treatment, and their dates, will suffice to give the reader who is familiar with some of Millet's work an idea of the completeness with which he is represented here. I must say something more than this about the "Peasant Leaning on his Hoe," a picture widely known by reproductions in etching and photography, that curiously

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naïve composition, with the figure in the middle of the squarish canvas, and the head coming nearly to the top of it; awkward it seems at first. But the peasant is not a shapely figure; he is uncouth and heavy-looking, and, with his hands laid one on the other on the handle of the hoe, and his head raised from his bent figure, he is the type of a hard-worked, drudging tiller of the soil. That we should be impressed by the severity of his toil, not pityingly (for the man is strong and horny-handed) but understandingly, taking in, like him, something of the feeling of his plodding labor and the smell of the earth and the fresh air in the wide open fields, is what Millet strove for; and is it not expressed and does it not reach us when we look at this bare-headed man, in his coarse clothes, with his heavy sabots sinking in the soft earth, alone in the broad plain, with only the birds for companions? And how admirably the picture is painted! The color is sober and deep—no positive tints, no contrasts, but a full harmony of quiet brown and gray; a sobriety that is almost sadness.

But even with such pictures as this we have not seen Millet in all his greatness. There is a picture here to which "The Sower" and "The Angelus" must give way—a picture that gathers all that is best and greatest of his qualities, one of those works of a great artist that leaves nothing unsaid that he has said in his other works, and yet says more. If one of Millet's pictures is to be marked as his masterpiece, it can only be "The Gleaners." There is a wheat-field and three women bending to gather the stray stalks of grain that the reapers have missed; there is a flat stretch of stubble, and in the distance long rows of shocks and laborers at work; there is some red and blue, I think, in the women's dresses, and there is hazy sunshine and a dull blue sky. Across the fields where the peasants are at work there are some white notes—the women's caps, probably. This is what you see when you look at the picture. There are people at work in the fields, and the figures of the three women in the foreground impress you as you see them bent over, two leaning low with their fingers grasping the stalks that lie on the stubble, one less bent and holding her thin bunch in her hands. Then you feel the hazy sunshine, and you hear the far-off hum of the other workers. When you awaken, if you are a painter yourself, you go up to the canvas to see how it is done, and you come away not very much the wiser. Still, you will have noticed that the technique is simple, that it is not painted to show the way it is painted, that it is unobtrusive in handling in every part of the canvas, and that in color the picture inclines to blonde tints. You will observe that the distance is enveloped in air, and that the sky-line at the dusty horizon is almost lost, and you will perceive that in some sort of a magic way the painter has placed everything in the most perfect harmony of line, value, and color. Further than that you will discover but little, and to describe the picture you cannot do much more than to say that you have noticed these things. You can only wonder at the marvellous art. Millet certainly never painted another such picture, and nobody else has painted a better one. It is the greatest picture in the Exhibition, and one of the great works of art of the world.

We are accustomed to seeing Corots in New York. There are some in every collection that comes under the hammer of the auctioneer; every club exhibition has three or four; every dealer in town can show you an assortment. But, as we well know, no small number of them are not Corots at all, but imitations; many of them, though authentic, are insufficient sketches and studies. Here at the Retrospective Exhibition are no less than forty-three—forty-three real Corots. It is not possible in the limits of this letter even to name them all; suffice it to say that it is the most complete and comprehensive collection of his works, beginning with a large study of a wood interior, carefully painted in his earliest manner (the canvas is dated 1830), and including landscapes and some figure pieces painted at different periods of his career down to his latest works in the seventies. Here is a delightful "View of La Rochelle" (Salon of 1852), a perfect piece of painting of white walls and quays in the soft sunshine, with the water of the harbor in tender pale grays, and the sky with white clouds and a patch of airy blue. Here are three beautiful landscapes side by side: "The Lake—Italy," "Evening," and "Dance of the Nymphs"—delicious pictures, as charming as they are truthful and full of light and air. Here are the familiar motives from Ville d'Avray, as "The Pond" and "The Punt"; and here is another sort of motive in the "Forest of Fontainebleau," treated with the same regard for truthfulness and the same feeling for the character of the scene and the same tenderness in expression. But even leaving aside all these, and others almost as fine as they are, there is enough in three pictures placed together on one of the walls to place Corot at the head of landscape painters. In the middle hangs a canvas rather over the usual size of most of Corot's pictures, about five feet in length and nearly as high. It is called "Biblis," and has for its subject an open space in the wood, a little valley with grassy slopes and a tiny stream running through it in the foreground. Under the trees at the left is indicated a little figure of Biblis, the nymph who was changed into a spring, which explains the title of the picture. The effect is that of early evening, a little after sunset. Here, again, as with the Millet, description completely fails. There are the most wonderful atmosphere, the most beautiful color harmonies, the most unobtrusive painting—one of the most enchanting landscapes ever seen. Indeed, it is doubtful if any painter ever produced one as beautiful. It is the most beautiful Corot I have ever seen, and I cannot think of any other picture to equal it. Claude seems empty and vapid, Poussin stiff and theatrical, and Corot's great contemporaries, Daubigny, Rousseau, and Diaz, seem earthy and human, in comparison with this divinity in landscape painting. Its two companions, hung on either side, "The Charette" and "Crossing the Ford," though they are noble works of Corot's best period and in themselves beautiful pictures, the one of morning, the other of quiet afternoon light, lose value by the proximity of this wonderful work of the master.

After Millet and Corot in the famous group of painters who were their contemporaries, Troyon is the next most important figure at the Retrospective Exhibition. There is no one work by him here that can be called his best, though there is one remarkably fine one, a grand landscape with cattle, "The Valley of La Touque"; a smaller picture, identical in composition with the celebrated "Morning" in the Louvre; a fine farm landscape with cows at milking time, "Pasture in Normandy"; and another of a shady road at morning, with a peasant girl riding behind a flock of sheep, "Going to Market." There are also four of those splendid studies of cattle, like "A White Cow in the Field," that Troyon has painted so well with his solid, virile *facture* and his strong, forceful color. Rousseau is not seen at his best, though there are sixteen pictures by him, but none of them are extraordinary, and not a few are in the labored, painstaking manner that characterizes his early work. Diaz is not so largely represented, but there is at least one superior work, "The Storm," a plain under a sky with black rain-clouds and light breaking through on the middle distance; and two excellent though less important works, "Morning in the Forest of Fontainebleau" and "Sunset."

The Daubigny exhibition is fairly representative, comprising ten pictures, one of which, "Sluice in the Valley of Optevoz" (Salon of 1885), has long been known as one of the best of his works. It formerly hung in the Luxembourg Gallery, but was transferred a few years ago to the Museum of Rouen, whence it has been brought here. It is a good example of the work of a great landscape painter who is surpassed by no other in his fidelity to nature, and whose frank, simple methods and unaffected style appeal eloquently to lovers of the beautiful and the true. Of the other pictures at least three, "Solitude," "The Banks of the Eure," and one that is designated simply "Landscape," are of the first rank, and there is a "marine" that is interesting because of the rarity of such motives with Daubigny. Jules Dupré is best seen in a large picture, of great dignity of composition and of admirable unity, called "View Near Limousin," and in a magnificent "Sunset," deep and sombre in general tone, with golden light on the clouds at the horizon. Another handsome work is the "Environs of Southampton," painted so long ago as 1835. But Jules Dupré, though still alive, belongs to a generation that passed away fifteen years ago.

Before speaking of Courbet and the realistic impressionist movement instituted by him, it seems proper to return to Delacroix and to his contemporary Decamps, in order to trace the origin of the painters we have classed as "Orientalists." Though Henri Regnault by no means confined his choice of subjects to the East, much of his most brilliant painting is inspired by it, and some of the finest of his color compositions are founded on Oriental themes. A number of them were exhibited at the Universal Exposition of 1878, but he is represented here by but one picture, and that one is not of the class I refer to. The portrait of Juan Prim, however, is considered Regnault's masterpiece, and if it does not represent all sides of his extraordinary talent, it is by itself sufficient to mark him as one of the commanding figures of the art of the century. It is so well known—this portrait of the Spanish General on his magnificent black stallion, with the cheering ranks of soldiers passing in the background—that it need not be described here. Its value as a work of art has long since been determined, and it has been brought here from the Louvre, where it holds an honored place. Fromentin may be studied in six excellent works, the most important of which is the "Fantasia," mounted Arabs wheeling over the plain and discharging their guns from the backs of their plunging steeds; a picture that shows at his best a painter who, if he does not belong in the highest rank, is always distinguished from the crowd by his charming color schemes and a certain scholarly elegance of technique. Guillaumet, most truthful of painters, and who yields to none in artistic sincerity, is represented by four pictures with subjects drawn from Arab life in Algeria.

It was at the Salon of 1851 that Courbet first exhibited "The Stonebreakers," and, so to speak, gave the signal for a battle with existing traditions that has engrossed the attention

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of the art world ever since. This famous picture occupies one of the places of honor in the gallery which runs around the central court in the Palais des Beaux-Arts; and in the inside rooms are grouped twelve of his other principal works, including the "Doe Run Down in the Snow" ("Biche forcée sur la neige," Salon of 1867), "The Woman with the Parrot" (Salon of 1866), and "The Awakening." The last two, studies of the nude figure, evoked as much discussion as the "Stonebreakers," caused, of course, by the same hardy, direct processes in painting from nature without choosing, but taking things as they come, and centring the interest in the picture on what Courbet considered of the first and only importance—the effect of light and air. Any possible beauties that might come from arrangement are disregarded; there is no effort to make, by the research of color harmonies, what we term a "handsome" canvas, nor to subdue some things in the picture in order to give greater force to others that may be considered of more importance. It is exactly what Manet has done in a somewhat different way, and with less success, taking his work as a whole. Monet has done the same thing in landscape, adding a scientific color interpretation of nature of his own, and Bastien-Lepage seems to have taken what is best of all, and fully realized the intentions of Courbet, while investing his work with a feeling for subtle beauty that escaped the others. Meanwhile yet another man, scarcely known at all, I think, in America, Fantin-Latour, in a quiet, reflective manner, painted portraits and a few figure subjects, embodying much that is best in Courbet and much that proceeds from his own soberly artistic nature. He was, like Courbet, inspired primarily by the great Romanticists, Delacroix and Géricault. Here, too, should be mentioned Raffaëlli, a painter whose resemblance to Courbet in methods is marked, but whose achievements so far have not been such as to entitle him to more than a moderate rank, and who in some of his works lays himself open to the charge of intentional eccentricity. His best quality is his success in the rendition of character, to attain which every other consideration is sacrificed. Associated with this general movement also is Besnard, who attempts the difficult task of painting "impressions" of light and air without permitting himself to neglect the more delicate gradations of color and the subtlest accents of form; and as landscape painters we should include Boudin and Pissaro.

The exhibition of Courbet's works has received a valuable addition in the past week in the "La Remise des Chevreuils," purchased by the Government at the Secrétan sale and destined for the Louvre. It is the most satisfactory work of them all, and shows, much better than the "Stonebreakers" (which, after all, may be most justly rated as a tentative work), the painter's great talent as a realist. Nothing could be more frankly and hardily painted than this nook in the deep woods, with the deer nibbling at the foliage, or reposing, half-hidden by the ferns, on the banks of the shallow brook that bubbles among the rocks. It is strikingly like nature, and a *tour de force* in technique. Manet, whose works in the exhibition number fourteen, appears decidedly less complete, and, if we except the very able handling in "Le Bon Bock" (Salon of 1873)—which recalls Franz Hals in its simple, direct modelling—and a certain depth of color and dignity of style that is not found in most of his painting, in the "Dead Toreador"—he remains the distinctly impressionistic painter we are already familiar with in New York. In "Le Bon Bock," indeed, which may, all things considered, be called his best work, he realized his aims and produced a picture that is eminently complete.

There are but three pictures here by Claude Monet, all of them small and all good. It is not possible to judge him from these, however, for his painting covers a wide range, of which these three canvases are no more than fractional notes. There is an exhibition of about 150 of his works at the Petit Gallery in the Rue de Sèze, and it is necessary to go there to arrive at an intelligent understanding of his value. It may be said of what is shown in the Champ de Mars that it is landscape painting of great excellence, which differs widely in intention from the work of most of his contemporaries. It is essentially impressionistic, and is surprisingly real in the rendering of the effect of light. It does not go far enough to be complete, and it is not likely that it ever will, for Monet is now an old man. His influence is already apparent in some quarters, and it is as an important factor in the transition state through which landscape painting, or that part of it which is worth serious consideration, is now passing in France, that his work really demands our notice. Whatever comes out of it will have been strongly influenced by Monet and by Cazin.

William A. Coffin.

ITALIAN MUSEUMS AND MONASTERIES.

Rome, August 5, 1889.

It is only a few months since an entirely new museum, not yet thrown open to the public, has been established in Rome, the "Museo Falisco," installed outside the Porta del Popolo, in some of the capacious halls of that most picturesque and fairy-like of Roman palaces called "Papa Giulio," from its illustrious founder, Julius III. The beautiful ceilings and sixteenth-century frescos, the courts and fountains, seem strangely out of place in the neighborhood of mean tenement-houses. The museum is being organized by Prof. Barnabei, the active Inspector-General of Antiquities, and by Count Adolfo Cozza, whose fame would be wide indeed if it equalled his ability. The collection is composed entirely of antiquities excavated during the last few years on the territory of Civita Castellana, the ancient Falerii; hence the name "Faliscan Museum."

The long and heroic resistance which the inhabitants of Falerii made against Rome; their being forced to build another city in the plain (ruins of Faleria); their strong clannishness; their famous temple of Juno and its great festival—all these are commonplaces of history and literature, and give an added interest to its antiquities. But the Faliscan territory is also interesting for two reasons: first, because it stands apart from its Etruscan neighbors through its long-continued adherence to traditions inspired by its Greek origin; and second, on account of the formation here of what we might term a Latin or Græco-Latin style of art, early in the third century B. C., before the rise of Roman art proper—a fact only just now disclosed.

The idea which has presided over the formation of this museum, though not altogether new, has never before been carried out on a large scale. For that reason I wish here to call attention to its great importance, and to the revolution which its general application would make in the spirit of archæological study. Starting with the important truism that the arts and industries represent the life, manners, and customs of the people, and are sometimes, in fact, as in this instance, almost their only representatives, it follows that the arrangement of an archæological museum should be such as to present the most perfect picture of this life in its complexity and at its different stages. In museums where every class of objects is given by itself, where groups found together are separated, and lose their interest from herding with a mass of similar material, no such picture is obtained: the bronzes are here, the vases there, the terracottas in one room, the jewelry in another.

In the Faliscan Museum the contents of every tomb are religiously kept together. This is a preliminary step; the next is to classify them into periods and groups. There are, I believe, eight main groups, which occupy a period of nearly 600 years, extending from the eighth to the close of the third century B. C. The order is strictly chronological. To one accustomed to the usual arrangement of museums, this is a perfect paradise. We can study the transformation of forms and types; the beginnings of the *graffiti* on vases; the rise and fall of the black ware with raised figures; the importation of pottery from the Archipelago, of Phœnician jewelry and bronzes, and of Egyptian scarabs. In this juxtaposition, even the most insignificant object, which would otherwise become valueless, is of importance. We can trace the earliest importation of Greek vases, the native imitations, and finally the creation of an original native school, after painted vases had long superseded the black ware. Jewelry, arms, utensils, and ornaments, all share in the changes. We are in touch with the life of the Faliscans and feel its pulse; we measure the amount of foreign influence as compared to native talent; obtain proofs of their commercial relations with the East, with Etruria proper, with Magna Græcia, and finally with Rome.

Singularly enough, the remains of the only Etruscan temple known were found three years ago at Civita Castellana itself. So much was left not only of its walls and of its terracotta sculptures and revetment, but also of its painted decoration, that it can be reconstituted, and the crowning touch will be given to the museum when the facsimile of the temple, of its exact size, will be erected there, into which all that remains of the original will be incorporated. Among the most interesting of the individual pieces are some of the terracottas found near the temple, especially a magnificent life-size statue of Apollo, with a lion-like head, in the style of the generation after Alexander. More archæological are some of the singular tombs—the earliest used—formed of huge tree-trunks hollowed out. They are seven feet or more long, and in good preservation, though they probably date from the seventh or eighth century B. C.

Discoveries are being continually made in the necropoli of Civita Castellana, which is now showing itself quite rich in Greek vases of the good period. The last necropolis found by Count Cozza is that of the primitive city, and seems to belong to the seventh century or earlier. The museum, though already filling a half-dozen large halls, will be more than doubled in size before it can be considered complete, nearly half the material already at hand being still in the store-house. Count Cozza has superintended the excavation of everything in the museum, and to him we owe the fruitful idea of its arrangement; but it would never have been carried out except for the untiring energy of Prof. Barnabei, its practical creator. I was fortunate in having them both as my guides through the collection, and in having visited the sites where the discoveries were made. I was already familiar with Count

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Cozza's work, through an acquaintance of several years. No one equals him in familiarity with Etruscan architecture; his views on the development of the Etruscan tomb, house, and temple are highly original and important, and will probably be published in one of the early issues of the new archæological publication of the Accademia dei Lincei.

It will be possible to enter almost at once on a similar task for the province of Orvieto, where so much has been discovered during the last few years, and where tombs are still being opened almost daily. Sig. Mancini, the principal excavator, has embraced the idea, and Count Cozza has already, in a small way, busied himself with the formation of groups analogous to those of the Faliscan district. It is to be hoped that the two active founders of the museum at "Papa Giulio" will extend their efforts to the Orvietan territory as soon as possible, for there is no time to spare. Unfortunately, it is too late to hope for a successful application of the plan to all the principal sites. Many, like Veii, Vulci, Cervetri, and others, seem well-nigh exhausted by the sweeping excavations of the past fifty or sixty years. In Etruria each territory has certain autonomous characteristics which are brought out clearly only by the group system. If the method could be applied to all the provinces of Italy where antiquities are still found in abundance, and if a great national archæological museum could be established in Rome, where all these provincial antiquities could be grouped, it is quite certain that the mere juxtaposition of these groups would suggest the solution of many perplexing problems concerning the races, progress, relations, and characteristics of the peoples of ancient Italy.

The new method is already producing salutary effects, even on the dealers in antiquities, and I have just heard of two large lots of vases and other contents of tombs which were purchased by them *en bloc* because objects which had formerly seemed worthless by themselves prove valuable in connection with their surroundings. Private collectors are also being influenced in the same direction. In the three halls of the Museo Etrusco at Florence devoted to the contents of the famous early tombs at Vetulonia, Prof. Milani is adopting the plan of keeping the entire tombs together. If I here call attention to the very different way in which that other great Florentine collection, the Museo Nazionale at the Bargello, is kept, it is in the hope that some steps may be taken to remedy its grave defects. There is no official catalogue; the only one printed is a mere pretence of which even the custodi are ashamed. This, combined with the almost complete lack of descriptive labels, makes it hardly possible to identify the objects, and renders the collection in certain parts quite useless for study.

During five weeks I have made a tour through a great part of that portion of central Italy which is bounded by Tuscany, the Neapolitan provinces, and the two seas, a territory which belonged almost entirely to the former States of the Church: I mean Latium, Sabina, lower Etruria, the Abruzzi, and a part of Umbria. The majority of the monuments of this region are quite unknown, and this was in reality a voyage of discovery full of pleasant surprises. I have no intention, however, of dwelling here on anything but a single point of rather melancholy interest; I mean the condition of the monastic establishments. The early Benedictines and the later Cistercians liked to build in the country, in low lands or on mountain sides; and these monasteries, when suppressed or deserted, have mostly been occupied by peasants. But the Franciscans and Dominicans did not flee from the face of other men; they built usually within the city, or else within a stone's throw of its gates. These are the monuments which, though in far better natural preservation than the former group, have suffered most damage from the recent policy of the Government. Sometimes they have been occupied by schools or asylums, but usually the monks have been superseded by the soldiers. The churches are used as dormitories, and cut up into two or three stories, or else filled with fodder or used as storehouses. In the monasteries the garrison is quartered. Sometimes they become hospitals. It is a case of barracks versus cloister. In a few cases, as at Santa Giuliana of Perugia, there is an officer with some æsthetic sense, who remonstrates against the ruthless destruction of such works as its beautiful early Gothic mortuary chapel; he is forthwith sacrificed by his superiors, and sent to meditate over the folly of not being an insensible machine. It so happened that my studies were mainly in the direction of the development of early Italian Gothic. The monuments of the orders of SS. Francis and Dominic are mostly of the thirteenth century, the time of early fervor and world-wide influence. Far more than the cathedrals and parish churches, they are the great representatives of the Gothic style throughout the country. And as I passed from town to town, and was met by the same monotonous picture of the ruin of art by militarism, it seemed as if such things should not be allowed in the nineteenth century.

A few more words on a special instance, the already mentioned monastery of Santa Giuliana at Perugia, formerly belonging to the Cistercian nuns. In time it dates from the middle of the thirteenth century; in style it is pure Gothic; its preservation was remarkable. Besides the church, there was the entire monastery, with its beautiful two-storied cloister, one of the finest in Italy, its pillared chapter-house and refectory, and its semi-subterranean mortuary church, not to mention many other vaulted halls. Some years ago it had already been given over to the infantry for a military hospital, and the church to the cavalry as a storehouse; but as yet no damage of any consequence had been done. Mariano Guardabassi and Luigi Carattoli, art inspectors for the province, then drew up memoirs setting forth the importance of the monuments, and succeeded finally in obtaining from the enlightened Orientalist Amari, then minister, the donation of the monument to the commune of Perugia, on the condition that the latter should provide another building for the hospital. After a bitter fight the gift was declined. So part of the fault should be laid at the door of the city. Although considerable destruction has been done, there is still time to declare the church and monastery a national monument, and it is far more deserving of this honor than many already on the list. Those who have now the direction of the funds set aside for the protection of monuments are certainly animated with the best intentions, and, if the appropriations were larger, many monuments now gradually decaying could be preserved. Among those that are being destroyed merely by natural causes, one of the most interesting is the old monastery of S. Pastore, near Rieti, built in 1258. It is now private property and rented to peasants. Part of the roof of the church is entirely gone and the grass grows in the aisles; the great tower has been split by lightning and will soon fall. It would need but a few thousand francs—probably five—to put the church in sufficient repair.

A. L. Frothingham, jr.

Correspondence.

A FORCE FOR THE REVIVAL OF THE READING HABIT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A thoughtful article in the *Nation* of a year or so ago noted and lamented the decay of the reading habit in the American community. The fact certainly is that comparatively few people nowadays read books—few people, that is to say, in comparison with the aggregate mass of the population of the country. Whether the number of such readers—I mean readers of *books*, not newspapers or magazines—is proportionately less now than formerly, is another question. The fact indisputable is, that it is quite the exceptional man among us, take the American people together, that can fairly be called a book-reader. I am quite sure, too, that this is true in a degree that, could the actual state of things somehow come to be trustworthily revealed, would startle most thinking men who have not happened to have their attention directed to the matter. If, for instance, the census-taker could next year require people everywhere to name the books that they had read during the twelvemonth preceding, the result would probably show that not one person in a hundred of our total sixty millions had within that time been the reader of even a single book. (I suppose that this estimate would have to be modified somewhat if paper-bound trashy novels were to be admitted into the list of books proper.)

I myself a few years ago put this point to a kind of test for my own individual satisfaction—dissatisfaction, as it proved. I was taking a leisurely buggy drive from the Hudson to the Genesee, through one of the most enlightened and most thriving belts of country in the Empire State of the Union. Using what tact I had to select fairly representative individuals in the various classes of persons whom as a stranger I thus met, I contrived, after suitable ambages of approach to the point through casual conversation, to learn from a considerable number of people the nature and extent of their recent familiarity with books. One farmer whom I met in the shade of wayside trees, willingly paused from his journey for a rest, while he answered kindly for me some questions concerning my road; he then, looking doubtfully meanwhile for help to his wife sitting beside him in his carriage, told the inoffensively inquisitive stranger that, besides a Moody-and-Sankey hymn-book, I think it was, they had read nothing in book form during the last two or three years except—except—they forgot the name—the 'Log Cabin,' they believed it was. 'Uncle Tom's Cabin?' I suggested. Yes, that was it, 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' Another group of three young farmers, fully up to the average of such, testified that they had none of them read any book since the 'Third Reader' at school. In short I found the fact superfluously made out that, so far at least as rural regions may be taken to represent in this respect the country at large, not many people in comparison to the whole number of our population are book-readers.

Now, of course the optimistic view of this state of the case is, that magazines and newspapers have probably taken the place of books in the reading of the general public. That such is to some extent indeed the fact nobody, I suppose, would be inclined to dispute. Undoubtedly an increased proportion of the freshest, brightest thought of the day gets its expression in the columns of the newspaper or in the pages of the magazine. And *Harper's* and

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the *Century* have taught us that the audience of the magazine may be very numerous. But comparatively, *how* numerous?—consider that. The high-water mark of the *Century's* circulation was touched, as I seem to remember, at about a quarter of a million copies. This meant, say, three-quarters of a million readers for certain particular numbers of the magazine. But we are sixty millions of people. And this, even this, comparatively small immense circulation—how it dwarfs the currency of even a highly successful book!

Well, perhaps books are among the things that are to pass, having had their day! There are some men of letters who seem willing enough to admit, nay, to demonstrate, that the world no longer has need of letters; that science should, as in fact it will, replace literature as the intellectual food of mankind. Perhaps, perhaps. The old order changeth, yielding place to new, and God—some of the old-fashioned rebellious will feel disposed to say the devil, rather—fulfils himself in many ways. We shall see what we shall see.

Meanwhile there is just now at work among us a much noised, but at the same time quite too little regarded, force for the revival of the habit of reading books. I refer to the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle. Here is an association of persons already 60,000 strong, whose specialty it is that they read, and read *through*, *books*. I submit that that is a noteworthy social fact. It has in it the "promise and potency" of a future. The movement thus named has had a history of eleven years. As Mr. Webster said, "The past, at least, is secure." But that is not all, for this movement lives now with apparently as vigorous a life as ever. And what is significant and full of hope is the fact that the majority of these pledged and strenuous readers of books are persons gained to be such from the ranks of those who, but for the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, would not be book-readers at all.

The books read are books selected for their solid instructive value, rather than for their merely entertaining character. The idea of the course prescribed, which covers four years of time, is to provide a *practicable* means for ordinary persons, necessarily debarred from liberal education, of surveying intelligently the ground traversed in the average four-years' college curriculum of study. The result to be expected, the result shown in some cases to have been actually realized, is the excitement of desire, and the spread of desire among the ranks of the people to obtain thorough education. Sound learning will be a gainer. The popular basis on which the security of high culture ultimately rests will be broadened. Colleges and universities will have more students, and better. Authors will find more readers, publishers will find more buyers of books. More books, and better, will be produced. The public will be more intelligent. Every good cause will profit by the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.

I appeal to our leaders of thought, to our masters of culture, to recognize this movement for what it truly is—not the quack offer of a worthless substitute for good education, but a powerful additional reinforcement to the army of intellectual liberation for humanity. It deserves from us all criticism, guidance, perhaps, but certainly encouragement. It is a true force of revival for good things, such as are always ready to perish.

WILLIAM C. WILKINSON.

TARRYTOWN, N. Y., September 7, 1889.

[A weak side of this interesting system is its manufacture of special text-books, which are subject to the limitations of production to order as opposed to spontaneous and competitive production; but also, and more seriously, to the restraints imposed by the nature and extent of the "Circle." The effect of these latter in the controverted departments of science and history, to mention no others, is obvious. As we have before pointed out in these columns, a Chautauqua text-book in United States history ends deliberately with the war of 1812! The sort of book-reader this preparation should evolve is one we have heard tell of who never read a book less than 2,000 years old, and had not got down to Paul and Silas yet.—ED. NATION.]

JUGGLING WITH FIGURES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will the *Nation* allow me to call attention to some peculiarities of logic and argument in a recent paper in the *Forum* by Thos. G. Shearman on the subject of "Henry George's Mistakes"? Seldom has the grim humor of statistics been so solemnly but effectively displayed as in this paper. Mr. Shearman's aim is to support the statement of Mr. George that the rich are growing richer and the poor poorer; and, to sustain his contention, he makes three distinct calculations. The total wealth of the country is placed at $60,000,000,000. From the fact that Eastern savings banks show an average deposit of $365, Mr. Shearman calculates that 400,000 persons own $45,000,000,000, or three-fourths of the entire wealth of the country. From another squint at statistics, he comes to the conclusion that 300,000 persons own $28,000,000,000 of the national possessions.

But it is on his first table that Mr. Shearman accomplishes his grand transformation act in statistics. Assuming that the number of incomes, when arranged in large classes, multiplies from three to five-fold for every reduction in the amount of one-half, he constructs the following table:

200	persons at	$20,000,000.....	$4,000,000,000
400	do	10,000,000.....	4,000,000,000
1,000	do	5,000,000.....	5,000,000,000
2,000	do	2,500,000.....	5,000,000,000
6,000	do	1,000,000.....	6,000,000,000
15,000	do	500,000.....	7,500,000,000
			$31,500,000,000

Having previously shown that 400,000 people own three-fourths of the wealth of the United States, and that 300,000 people only own $28,000,000,000, Mr. Shearman by this table proves that not quite 25,000 people own more than 300,000 people.

Allow me to carry Mr. Shearman's table on a little further, and see what the result would be:

30,000	persons at	$250,000 00.....	$7,500,000,000
90,000	do	125,000 00.....	11,250,000,000
180,000	do	62,500 00.....	11,250,000,000
540,000	do	31,250 00.....	16,875,000,000
1,080,000	do	15,625 00.....	16,875,000,000
3,240,000	do	7,812 50.....	25,312,500,000
6,480,000	do	3,906 25.....	25,312,500,000
10,000,000	do	1,953 12.....	19,531,200,000

This would give a little over 21,000,000 workers and capitalists in this country, which agrees practically with Mr. Shearman's estimate.

Now, what do we find by completing the table? In the first place, that 325,000 persons own $61,500,000,000, which is a billion and a half dollars more than the entire possessions, real and personal, of the nation, according to the highest estimate. In the second place, that the entire national wealth is $165,000,000,000, instead of $60,000,000,000. And in the third place, beginning at the bottom of the table instead of the top, that 19,720,000 workers having the lowest incomes own over $70,000,000,000, which is $10,000,000,000 in excess of the entire national wealth.

WALKER KENNEDY.

MEMPHIS, TENN., September 12.

GOLD CONTRACTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your interesting editorial in the last number of the *Nation* on "The New Silver Campaign," you made no mention of the important fact that the great loan corporations of the East, the insurance companies and private investors, require their Western agents to have their mortgage deeds and notes state plainly that the loan is to be paid in gold coin. I wonder what would be the mental sensations of one of Senator Reagan's enthusiastic constituents when, having saved $1,000 to pay his mortgage, he is informed that an additional $300 must be obtained at once to save his farm from foreclosure sale, on account of the gold premium created by the great Senator's efforts in behalf of silver. And will not the vast army of borrowers all over this country be in the same predicament?

B.

MINNEAPOLIS, September 1, 1889.

KEEPING MONEY IN THE COUNTRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was driving through the Grassmarket here to-day, and had just passed the cross in the pavement that marks the spot where they used to hang people for stealing, when my attention was called to the magnificent free library that "Mr. Carnegie, the American millionaire, has presented to the citizens of Edinboro'."

This led me to reflect upon how things are changed, and to wonder what the mill-owners of Pennsylvania would think of this as an illustration of the way the money they wring from the hard hands of the taxpayers is "kept in the country."

Yours truly, TRANSATLANTIC.

EDINBURGH, September 4, 1889.

ENGLISH CORRUPTION OF AN AMERICAN WORD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "Nor has education which is conceived in a partisan, or democratic, or business spirit any considerable advantage over other important interests similarly jerrymandered."—*London Academy, No. 891, June 1, 1889.*

We have here an erudite *Volksetymologie*, a corruption in spelling, pronunciation, and meaning of *gerrymander* (see 'Winsor's Narrative and Critical History of America,' vol. vii, p. 318, note 1.)

Add to this that the 'Encyclopædic Dictionary' gives *jerrymander* and *gerrymander* as alternative forms, and alliterates the latter with *gem*, though the *g* is hard in *Gerry* and its derivative.

A. I.

NEW BEDFORD, MASS., September 10, 1889.

Notes.

A COLLECTION of short stories by Mr. Brander Matthews will be published this fall in New York and London by Longmans, Green & Co.,

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under the title of the opening story, 'A Family Tree.' The same publishers will issue at the same time the tales of Irish-American character in California which Mr. George H. Jessop has recently printed in the *Century* and the *Atlantic*, and which have more unity than is to be found in most volumes of short stories, as the same young journalist is a participant in the action of all of them. The book will therefore be called 'Gerald Ffrench's Friends.' Add to the foregoing 'The Blue Fairy Book,' edited by Mr. Andrew Lang, an attempt to set down the old favorites of the nursery, once for all, and with due respect for the accepted versions. It will contain nearly two-score tales, from the Greek, from the 'Arabian Nights,' from Grimm, from Perrault and Mme. d'Aulnoy, and from the folk-lore of England. Mr. G. P. Jacomb Hood (who illustrated Mr. Lang's 'Aucassin and Nicolette') and Mr. H. J. Ford will supply numerous illustrations. To a limited large-paper edition Mr. Lang will prefix an essay on the origin of the fairy tales and their relation to each other—an essay not to be included in the ordinary edition, which is intended for those who take their fairies on faith, and who wish no analysis of these fairies' adventures.

D. Appleton & Co. will shortly issue in book form the papers contributed by Mr. David A. Wells to the *Popular Science Monthly*, under the title, 'Recent Economic Changes, and their Effect on the Production and Distribution of Wealth and the Well-being of Society.' Also, the following works: An 'Epitome of Herbert Spencer's Philosophy,' by Howard Collins; Mme. Carette's 'Recollections of the Court of the Tuileries' (Third Empire); 'Great Leaders: Historic Portraits from the Great Historians'; a novel by Admiral Porter, 'Arthur Merton,' and one by Edna Lyall, 'The Hardy Norseman.'

A large paper limited edition of 'William Hazlitt, Essayist and Critic,' with a memoir by Alexander Ireland, will shortly be issued by Frederick Warne & Co.

Thomas Whittaker publishes directly 'The Coming Woman's Grandson: a Tale of Cheddar a Hundred Years Ago,' by Miss Yonge, and 'The Third Miss St. Quentin,' by Mrs. Molesworth.

T. Y. Crowell & Co.'s fall list includes Victor Duruy's 'History of France,' a new and revised edition of Charlotte F. Bates's 'Cambridge Book of Poetry and Song'; 'Ad Lucem,' a selection of prose and poetry for suffering ones, by Mary Lloyd; 'A Dictionary of Prose Quotations,' by Anna L. Ward; 'Convenient Houses, and How to Build Them,' by Louis H. Gibson; and 'Metzerott—Shoemaker,' an anonymous novel.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert have nearly ready 'An Appeal to Pharaoh: A Radical Solution of the Negro Problem.'

Worthington Co. announce 'My Good Friend,' translated from the French of Adolphe Belot by Edward Wakefield.

Joel Munsell's Sons, Albany, solicit subscriptions for a new edition of the Rev. B. F. DeCosta's 'Pre-Columbian Discovery of America by the Northmen'; an enlarged edition of 'The Border or Riding Clans,' followed by a history of the Clan Dickson, by B. Homer Dixon; and 'The Ohio Valley in Colonial Days,' by Berthold Fernow.

We make the following selections from Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s forthcoming publications: 'Life of Richard H. Dana, jr.,' by Chas. Francis Adams; 'Life of Harriet Beecher Stowe,' by her son; the Scientific Papers of the late Asa Gray, selected by Chas. Sprague Sargent; 'Life of Richard Steele,' by George A. Aitken; 'The Genesis of the United States, 1605-1616,' edited by Alexander Brown; 'Essays in the Constitutional History of the United States, 1775-1789,' by J. Franklin Jameson and others; 'History of the Old South Church,' by Hamilton A. Hill; 'Sermons,' by the late Jacob Merrill Manning; 'Civil Government,' by John Fiske; 'Essays on Government,' by A. Lawrence Lowell; 'The Reconstruction of Europe,' by Harold Murdock; 'Origin and Growth of the English Constitution,' by Hannis Taylor; 'The Continuous Creation: An Application of the Evolutionary Philosophy to the Christian Religion,' by the Rev. Myron Adams; 'The Church in Modern Society,' by the Rev. Julius H. Ward; 'The Struggle for Immortality,' by Elizabeth Stuart Phelps; 'Portraits of Friends,' by John Campbell Sharp; 'Six Portraits: Della Robbia, Correggio, Blake, Corot, George Fuller, Winslow Homer,' by Mrs. Schuyler Van Rensselaer; 'A Rambler's Lease,' by Bradford Torrey; 'Gudrun,' a mediæval epic, translated from the Middle-High German by Mary Pickering Nichols; 'Three Dramas of Euripides—the Medea, the Hippolytos, the Alkestis,' by Wm. Cranston Lawton; a holiday edition, with appropriate illustrations, of Hawthorne's 'Marble Faun'; and (last but not least) an Index to the first sixty-two volumes of the *Atlantic Monthly*.

D. C. Heath & Co. publish this month a translation of Lindner's 'Empirical Psychology,' by Charles De Garmo; and 'Sept Grands Auteurs du XIXe Siècle,' an introduction to 19th century French literature by Prof. Alcée Fortier.

New editions of Ruskin's 'Sesame and Lilies,' and of Prof. David Swing's 'Motives of Life' and 'Club Essays' are in the press of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, together with a rythmical version of the Book of Job, by Dr. George H. Gilbert of the Chicago Theological Seminary, and 'Alexia,' a novel by Mrs. Mary Abbott.

S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, announce a translation, by Prof. Julius E. Olsen, of Peter Lauridsen's 'Vitus Bering, the Discoverer of Bering Strait.'

'The Method of Least Squares,' by Prof. G. C. Comstock, is in the press of Ginn & Co., Boston.

Our readers may recall a recent complaint of Mr. Thomas Hughes, levelled, through the London *Times*, at Messrs. Ginn for republishing his 'Tom Brown at Rugby' in their "Classics for Children" series, not only, as he said, against his wishes, but with omissions (on the score of temperance) to which he was strenuously opposed. Judge Hughes now addresses to the same paper a letter showing that the firm's persistent efforts to secure his permission after the first refusal involved a personal interview with their representative, who went away supposing that the concession was granted, though this was not the author's understanding. This removes the imputation of piracy, which could not be entertained of this firm, and Judge Hughes reports, what was also matter of course, that he is to receive a royalty like any domestic author.

The publishers of *Puck* announce that they are about to issue 'In the 400 and Out,' a volume of satirical cuts by Mr. C. J. Taylor, the artist of 'The Taylor-Made Girl,' with which pretty book the new collection of sketches will be uniform.

James Clegg, Rochdale, England, will shortly publish by subscription in a limited edition a 'History of the Parish of Rochdale,' in the county of Lancaster, by Lieut.-Col. Fishwick, F.S.A. The work promises to be one of considerable interest. The list of county families noticed is a long one. There will be numerous illustrations.

Mr. Clegg sends us a second edition of his 'Directory of Second-hand Booksellers and List of Public Libraries, British and Foreign.' Twenty-six pages are needed for the second-hand booksellers of the British islands; nine suffice for Canada and the United States; fourteen for continental Europe. Lists of pseudonyms, initials, and works whose authors' names are supplied for convenience, postal information, and some other matter, fill out the little book, which is not exhaustive.

At the request of the Hakluyt Society, Mr. Everard F. im Thurn, author of 'Among the Indians of Guiana,' has undertaken to edit for the Society Sir Walter Raleigh's 'Discoverie' of Guiana, published in 1596. The Hakluyt edition of the same work, as admirably edited by the late Sir Robert Schomburgk, is now scarce, forty-one years having elapsed since its publication. Mr. im Thurn is specially qualified for the performance of the labor of love to which he is about to devote himself. For years past, his official duties under the Government of British Guiana have brought him into continuous communication with the aboriginals, whose customs and traditions he has carefully studied. He has travelled much in the interior of Guiana, and is especially conversant with that portion of British Guiana which lies between the Essequibo and the Orinoco. It is perhaps overlooked that the coast of Guiana might have received the Pilgrim Fathers had not those in favor of a settlement there been outvoted. Under the year 1617, Prince states: "After humble prayer to God they first debate whether to go to Guiana or to Virginia. And though some, and none of the meanest, are earnest for the former, they at length determined for the latter." It seems almost certain that Raleigh's 'Discoverie' influenced those, "none of the meanest" sort, who voted for Guiana.

The Argosy press of Georgetown, Demerara, is now setting up a second edition of 'West Indian Yarns,' by Mr. G. H. Hawtayne, a Government official in that colony. In these 'Yarns,' of which the first edition has become exhausted, the writer describes with much knowledge and humor a state of things that is fast passing away in the social life of some of the island colonies. As photographs in black and white of society a generation ago, Mr. Hawtayne's amusing sketches will preserve for present and future dwellers in those colonies many shades of existence which would otherwise disappear. Persons who intend avoiding the winter by taking a trip to the West Indies will find much to amuse them in the 'Yarns.'

We lately called attention to Mr. Collar's new text-book of Latin Prose Composition. The principal of another prominent Latin school in Boston, Mr. M. Grant Daniell, has just issued the first part of his 'Exercises in Latin Prose Composition' (Boston: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn). This book deserves to be compared with Mr. Collar's, since both teachers agree in connecting their exercises directly with the Latin authors which the class is engaged in reading. Thus, Mr. Daniell's present volume relates to Books i-iv of Cæsar's 'Gallic War.' Part ii will be based on Cicero's Orations. A vocabulary is in preparation.

Dr. C. W. Dulles of Philadelphia sends us a paper on Hydrophobia (Pennsylvania Medical Society reprint) in which he admits that deaths may occur after dog-bite, but denies that hydrophobia (by which we understand he means rabies) is a distinct or real disease. His reasoning, if it may be called such, does not commend itself to us.

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The most valuable of four papers, reprinted as a pamphlet from the California Board of Health Report for 1888, by Dr. Wolfred Nelson, describes the Quarantine (or more properly, Disinfecting) Station below New Orleans, organized by Dr. Joseph Holt of the Louisiana Board of Health. This station is a veritable crucible in which the sanitary dross is extracted from infected ships and cargoes. It protects the city from without, and fosters, rather than retards, commerce, and it is not wasteful of time or money. The other papers iterate that yellow fever is endemic in the American tropics, and that our Southern States are in constant danger of its permanent colonization in them, which is true. The style is prolix, but a condensed tract might be prepared whose circulation on the Southern seaboard would assist in the spread of sanitary facts.

Mr. R. R. Bowker prefaces the seventeenth edition of 'The Publishers' Trade-List Annual' (New York: *Publishers' Weekly*) with a handsome recognition of the corresponding monster British 'Reference Catalogue' (London: J. Whitaker & Sons), with its admirable index, and of Caspar's 'Directory of the American Book and Stationery Trade' (Milwaukee), both issued during the present year, and both already noticed in these columns. Mr. Bowker points out the cost in labor and money and the long time needed to bring these works to their respective degrees of excellence, as a fair excuse for not expanding the scheme of the 'Trade-List Annual,' as some would have him. He rightly insists on the value of freshness secured by his method, by which not only are publishers' catalogues bound together, but an Educational Catalogue is provided, together with a record (by author, title, and subject) of books published from January to June of the current year.

Our recent notice of the 'Memoir of Douglass Houghton,' first State Geologist of Michigan, has brought us numerous inquiries as to the mode of procuring the book. It can be had by addressing the author, Mr. Alvah Bradish, 55 Fort Street, W., Detroit, Mich. The price is $1.75.

A European teaching an Oriental language to the cultivated speakers of it is not a frequent sight, yet Mr. Basil Hall Chamberlain has held, during several years past in the Imperial University of Tokio, the chair of Japanese and Philology. His 'Handbook of Colloquial Japanese,' issued last year, has reached a second edition. In both theory and practice, it forms a thorough equipment for the mastery of the spoken and easy book language.

The *Jahrbuch* of the Deutsche Shakespeare-Gesellschaft opens with a brief account of its history since its organization twenty-five years ago, by the editor, F. A. Leo, who also contributes a paper showing the relations of Goethe to Shakspere. There is, too, a description of the Duke of Buckingham's edition of "Julius Cæsar," and a curious translation of a Japanese student's account of the "Merchant of Venice" by Sekisupiyā (Shakspere), whom he ranks with the Chinese Rakantchin and the Japanese Bakino, "the three greatest story-tellers in the world." There is the usual careful review of Shaksperian literature, having especial reference to the Baconian controversy, and a necrology, which includes the well-known names of N. Delius, with a portrait, Alex. Schmidt, Karl Elze, and Halliwell-Phillipps. An interesting feature is the table of the representations of the plays at the different German theatres, from which we learn that in 1888 twenty-five plays were given 751 times, of which "Othello" took the lead with 129 representations, the "Merchant of Venice" and "Romeo and Juliet" following with 99 and 91 respectively. Mr. Albert Cohn's bibliography for 1887-88 is, as usual, remarkable for its range and fulness. A photolithographic copy of Shakspere's will, of the size of the original, accompanies this volume, which also contains an index of the whole set.

The Royal Prussian Academy of Sciences of Berlin has accepted a donation made by Count Joseph Florimond Loubat of New York for the purpose of giving a prize every five years to works on North America. Such works are divided into two series: (1) those on the history of the aboriginal inhabitants, as well as on geography, archaeology, ethnography, philology, and numismatics; (2) those relating to the colonization of North America by civilized nations, and the modern history down to the present time from any of its sides. The first prize of 3,000 marks ($714) will be given in July, 1891, to the best work of the second class, mentioned above, published between July 1, 1884, and July 1, 1889, whether in English, German, French, or Dutch. Besides those sent to the Academy (before July 1, 1890), copies must be presented to the Libraries of Columbia College and of the Historical Society of New York.

The prize on the Bluntschli Foundation, formed by the contributions of the admirers of the eminent Swiss-German international jurist and professor, has been awarded for the first time to Paul Heilborn, Referendary at Berlin, for an essay on the subject of "The Passage of Belligerent Troops and War Material through Neutral Territory in Time of War." The subject proposed for the second prize competition ought especially to interest Americans under existing circumstances. It is as follows: "The Right belonging to Governments in Time of Peace of Expelling Foreigners; its Foundation according to Public Law, and its Limits according to International Law." The question refers only to the right of expulsion as a political measure, and not as a police measure, not as a penalty of crime. The prize amounts to 2,000 francs ($400). The essays, which ought not to exceed 8 to 10 printed sheets (*feuilles*) 8vo, may be written in English, French, German, Italian, or Latin, and must be handed in at Munich by December 31, 1890. The particulars are given in the *Revue de Droit International* No. 5, 1888, and No. 1, 1889.

The Faculté de Droit of Paris also proposes three prizes from the legacy left by the Countess Rossi: (1) a prize of 4,000 francs for an "Essay on Transmissible Securities (*titres au porteur*) in French Law and the Laws of the Chief Foreign Countries"; (2) a prize of 8,000 francs on the subject of "The Best System of Publicity for the Constitution and Transmission of Rights to Real Property"; (3) a prize of 2,000 francs for an essay on "The Rights of Upper Houses or Senates as to Financial Laws." These essays, which may be written in French or in Latin, should be sent to the Secretary of the Faculty before March 31, 1890.

It is questionable whether the existing libraries in the United States offer sufficient facilities to American students wishing to compete for some of these prizes. Some years ago the Institute of International Law put on its programme as a subject of discussion the best method of spreading in any one country a knowledge of the legislation of other countries. At the meeting the French members laughed at the question and advised other countries to follow their example. The Committee on Foreign Legislation of the French Ministry of Justice started in 1876 a library of this kind, and, by means of well-considered purchases, exchanges with other States, and gifts, this now amounts to over 4,000 works and 18,000 volumes on the legislation of every country in the world, international law, political economy, statistics, and political geography, including dictionaries and other aids. The catalogue of this library has just been published ('Catalogue de la Bibliothèque du Comité de Legislation Étrangère,' Paris, 1889), which is a real vade-mecum on this subject. There is a nucleus for such a library in the State Department at Washington, but similar ones should be established at New York, Boston, and Chicago, and wherever there is a centre of political study. Many a question arises pertaining to our social and political development, the solution of which would be much aided by a careful comparative study of foreign legislation and systems. For completing such a library no better guide could be taken than this Paris catalogue.

—The only article of general interest in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for August is on the money of Central Africa, by Gerhard Rohlfs. He remarks on the singular fact that, though gold is to be found in nearly every part of the continent, and in some places, as Timbuctoo, for instance, forms an important article of commerce, it is never used for money. The only silver piece in general circulation, being at the same time the highest denomination of money and, to a certain extent, the standard of value, is the Mariatheresienthaler. This coin, which has very nearly driven out of circulation the Spanish two-pillared dollar of nearly equal value, must bear the date 1780 and have a certain number of points on the diadem and crown of the Empress, or it will not be accepted by the natives. Before the English entered upon their Abyssinian campaign, they had a large quantity of these pieces struck off at Vienna. At that time the rupee was introduced, but it soon disappeared, nor are the Italians as yet more fortunate in forcing their five-lire pieces into circulation in the same regions. The most widespread money of the smaller denominations is the cowry, which has a very varied value. Generally, a dollar is worth from three to four thousand shells, but, in one instance, Herr Rohlfs sold three horses for 190,000 cowries, or $38. It took, he adds, five people half a day to count them. Next to the cowry come the strips of cotton cloth, which, when of native make, are mostly of the same breadth (four fingers) as those employed by the ancient Egyptians for wrapping up their mummies. In some countries travellers have found small, thin, horse-shoe-shaped pieces of iron used as currency, their value ranging from fifty to two hundred for a dollar. Some of the provinces of Abyssinia and the adjacent countries use for the same purpose cubes of salt weighing a pound and a half and having a certain well-defined shape, their value varying, according to the distance from the mines, from forty-eight to four for the dollar. It is noteworthy that all this circulating medium, in which, it may be added, Rohlfs does not include the ivory tusk, has a practical use besides that of money—the dollar and the cowry for ornament, the cotton for clothing, the iron for weapons and utensils, and the salt for food. A supplemental number is wholly devoted to an account by W. v. Diest of a journey from Pergamus over the Dindymum range to Pontus. It is accompanied by some admirable maps.

—The tenth of the noble volumes of Dr. J. S. Billings's 'Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A.' (Washington: Government Printing-Office), begins with the letter O and ends with Pfutsch. It

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falls below the average in the number of author-titles and (so far as books are concerned) of subject-titles, for a reason which is not apparent till we come upon the list of medical and scientific periodicals and transactions, filling 113 closely packed pages. For the rest, *place aux dames* might be the motto of the present volume, since Obstetrics, Ovary, and Ovariotomy alone demand 140 pages, while other rubrics pertaining at least as much to the female sex as to the male would considerably swell the total just given. Ophthalmia, Optics, and Orbit fill some 25 pages; the Œsophagus 25; the Palate 12; the Pancreas 9 to 10. Orthopædia (the name occurs in a French treatise as far back as 1741, though the literature of the subject is mostly of the last half century) has 10 pages to itself. Paralysis has 67; Pathology 20. The Pest extends over 41 pages, and under this heading occur some of the oldest and most curious works. A. Benedictus wrote in 1493 at Venice his 'De Observatione in Pestilentia'; and in 1674 appeared a 'Propugnaculum contra Pestem,' which invoked the aid of astrology. A characteristic English title for the period (the fore part of the eighteenth century) is 'The Plague. Containing: I. An account of the plague of Athens from the great historian, Thucidides, who had it himself. II. The same in verse by Mr. Creech, from the Latin of Lucretius. III. The same paraphrased in verse by Dr. Sprat. IV. An account of the plague now [1743] raging in Messina,' etc. A very long and important subdivision of the title Pest is the history of it, of which the second part is alphabetized by localities.

—An extremely useful grouping is that of works on the healthfulness of Occupations and Trades; and the lists of statutes concerning Oleomargarin and Pensions will be found convenient. The chapter on Obesity is not inflated, reckoning only three and a half pages; but mankind were early concerned about their adeps, corpulentia, obesitas, pinguedo, polisarcia, polypionia, their embonpoint and Fettleibigkeit—witness C. C. Leissner's 'De Obesitate Exsuperante' (Jena, 1683). The remedial properties of Oxygen were written about as early as 1796-7, but more especially in very recent years. Ozone does not (in this collection) antedate the fifties. Dr. Brown-Séquard was anticipated (as regards the end in view) by old Martin Pansa, with his 'Aureus Libellus de Proroganda Vita' of 1615, to say nothing of his various works of 'Consilium' (phlebotomicum, evacuatorium, anti-nephriticum, anti-pestiferum, anti-podagricum). Paracelsus, by the way, fills two pages, leading off with the year 1565. We turn the 1059th page of Volume X. with renewed admiration for the intelligence and industry which have produced such a monument to the healing art, to the history of the human mind, to American scholarship, and such an unrivalled aid to research in this branch of science.

—Prof. Nettleship's 'Contributions to Latin Lexicography' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) form a work which will be of service to scholars everywhere. It is much to be regretted that his project of the compilation of an entirely new lexicon should have failed through lack of coöperation, for these specimens, selected from what he had already prepared, show remarkably great qualifications for the task. They include such parts of his material as appeared to him to contain improvements upon the current Latin-English dictionaries in matters of arrangement of citations, new views of interpretation, and corrections, as well as a large number of words not given by Lewis and Short. These words seem to be taken chiefly either from late writers or from the old glossaries, to which the author is known to have given special study. Undoubtedly we have much to learn from those ancient lexicographers, who have until recently met with undeserved neglect. Only a few new etymologies are offered, and these with modesty. The quantity of syllables is carefully marked, and the general accuracy of method is evident from the separation of such words as *accerso* from *arcesso*, *designo* from *dissigno*, and in spelling, as in *admentum*. The treatment of *an* first as interrogative and not disjunctive is, we believe, unique in an English book. We wish that Prof. Nettleship had given us more inceptive verbs, correcting the errors which are so common in lexicons under this head. The book has a full index.

—It is not pleasant news to hear that the friendship which has bound together for forty years two great collaborators in French literature has been broken, and that the hyphen is destroyed that joined the names of MM. Erckmann and Chatrian. A difference about money has arisen between the two friends, and they have parted for good and all. M. Auguste Georgel, on behalf of M. Chatrian, lays bare the pitiful story in the *Figaro*, with a superabundance of sordid and ridiculous details. It appears that M. Erckmann has never taken any part in the composition of the plays to which the compound name has been attached, but has had a share in such profits of them as remained after certain collaborators of M. Chatrian had been paid. These payments to other collaborators constituted M. Erckmann's grievance, and he maintained that no part of them ought to come out of his pocket, and sent his nephew to ask that the whole ownership of the plays should be turned over to him as indemnity for what he had already lost in this way. The innocent and upright Chatrian was just about to give his consent to this plundering, M. Georgel says, when he himself appeared on the scene and put a stop to Erckmann's base work. The matter was left to the judgment of a referee, of whom M. Georgel's opinion is very unfavorable, who decided that Chatrian should pay over to Erckmann the sums that had been given to the collaborators. Half of this amount was offered to the nephew, who took it, and the affair was ended. This is the gist of M. Georgel's story, which may be a true and complete account of the unhappy affair. But there are parts of it that one would like to see cleared up before giving it one's entire belief. How did it happen that so bad a referee was chosen, for instance? Besides, M. Georgel tries to overwhelm Erckmann with odious charges of infidelity to France. He lives still at Phalsbourg, he says, among the Germans; he ran away and left his sick and idiotic sister under fire; he has a niece married to a German officer, and so on, and so on. Such absurd and irrelevant charges, together with the prejudice and hostility that appear in every line of M. Georgel's article, will be likely to incline fair-minded people to wait for further information before deciding where the blame in this unfortunate quarrel should fall. The propriety of such a suspense of judgment is made still more obvious by the latest news about the affair. M. Chatrian has affirmed the truth of M. Georgel's letter, and M. Erckmann publishes a note to say that he shall prosecute both his old friend and M. Georgel for libel and defamation.

—In 1872, on the occasion of the celebration of the 200th anniversary of the birth of Peter the Great, Count Dmitry A. Tolstoi requested the Emperor's permission to begin a collection of the letters and documents of that great ruler. A commission was formed of four professors of history, a Senator, the custodian of museums, and an Academician, who divided among them the work of collecting the materials. Appeals to the public and to foreign Powers proved not to be fruitless. By 1877 they had amassed 10,000 documents, but the sum assigned by the Treasury for copying them was so insignificant that two members of the Commission undertook the task of copying a considerable quantity of them. When Count Tolstoi retired from the post of Minister of Public Instruction, the work stopped; in 1884, by an imperial order through the new Minister, Count Tolstoi was intrusted with the oversight of the work, and he confided the charge of printing the first volume to A. F. Buitchkoff, Academician, director of the Imperial Public Library, who had continued his labor of copying uninterruptedly. It appeared that a great quantity of Peter the Great's letters had been lost, as was evident from the letters in answer, of which those giving information of the lost epistles are included in this volume. The notes (among which are quoted 362 of these replies) occupy a good half of the volume of 1,000 pages. What is known as to the fate of the missing letters is as follows: During the last years of the reign of the Emperor Nicholas, the Moscow senatorial archives were kept in a building where there was a school of architecture, with a corridor common to both. The archive hall was closed by folding-doors with leaves. By drawing the door towards one, a crack opened, through which the pupils of the School of Architecture crawled, stretching themselves out upon the shelves and bundles of papers, rummaging among them and tearing them up. Many of the students took especial pleasure in documents with the signature "Petrus," or "Piter," and calmly appropriated them. The materials for the remaining volumes are ready, and, when completed, the work will furnish a valuable aid in the study of the remarkable personality of the great Peter.

STUDIES ON SPAIN.

Études sur l'Espagne. Par A. Morel-Fatio. Première série. Paris: Vieweg. 8vo, pp. xi, 244.

THE author of this charming work has already distinguished himself by his profound works upon Spanish and Catalan literature and philology. In a work published some years ago ('L'Espagne au XVIe et au XVIIe siècle,' Heilbronn, 1878) he gave to the light a mass of historical and literary documents of great rarity and interest. The present volume is of a lighter nature, and appeals to the general reader. It contains three studies: on how France has known and understood Spain from the middle ages to the present day, researches into 'Lazarillo de Tormes,' and the historical element in "Ruy Blas."

The first study is especially novel and interesting. The relations between the literatures of two countries have often attracted the attention of scholars, and we have, for example, an admirable comparative history of the literatures of Spain and France ('Histoire comparée des littératures espagnole et française,' by A. de Puibusque, Paris, 1843); but we do not remember that any one has undertaken a sketch of the acquaintanceship of one nation with another. During the middle ages, intercourse between the two countries was confined almost exclusively to warriors who un-

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dertook the crusade against the Moors, and to pilgrims who made the journey to the shrine of St. James at Campostella (Santiago). The latter, we may be sure, did not return to France with any very exalted idea of the inns on the way or of the manners of the wild Basques. Nor was any better impression made by the reputation for magic which Toledo long enjoyed. In the fourteenth century the intervention of Du Guesclin in the struggle between Peter the Cruel and his brother Henry was not of a nature to commend the two countries to each other.

From the fifteenth century on, the relations between the two countries became more intimate. Spanish soldiers take service in France, and Spanish scholars spread the reputation of their universities. With the sixteenth century began the period of Spain's magnificent empire, and with it a brilliant national literature, and now it was the turn of France to borrow. The Spanish marriage of Louis XIII. made *cosas de España* fashionable in France: dress, food, and language, all felt this influence. There was a veritable rage for Spanish grammar, and the press teemed with translations of Spanish novels. This was the first period of Spanish taste in France; the second was a period also of imitation, as Morel-Fatio remarks, but an intelligent imitation, which is able to create works more beautiful and perfect than the originals. This was the period of the "Cid" (1636) and the "Menteur" (1644). The novel, especially that in the style of rogues (*novella picaresca*), is also imitated, but it is not until the next century that this *genre* finds its perfection in the 'Gil Blas' of Le Sage. Meanwhile, more enlightened travellers are making the two countries better acquainted—Bertaut, the Countess d'Aulnoy, and Saint-Simon among them. How popular the Countess d'Aulnoy's travels were, even out of France, may be judged from the fact that the writer of this notice has before him the eleventh edition (1808) of the English translation. It is a very charming book, but the reader should never forget that the writer was famous for her fairy tales.

In the eighteenth century two currents may be recognized—one of the littérateurs, who still seek their material in Spain; the other of the philosophers, who, deeming Spain the land of fanaticism and ignorance, shower contempt upon it. The representative of the former class is Le Sage, whose famous 'Gil Blas' still presents an unsolved enigma. Of the philosophers, Montesquieu and Voltaire have left stinging epigrams which can never be forgotten. Witness these extracts from the 'Lettres Persanes' (lxxviii) of the former: "Ils sont les premiers hommes du monde pour mourir de langueur sous la fenêtre de leurs maîtresses, et tout Espagnol qui n'est pas enrhumé ne saurait passer pour galant. . . . Les Espagnols qu'on ne brûle pas paraissent si attachés à l'Inquisition qu'il y aurait de la mauvaise humeur de la leur ôter"; and, apropos of 'Don Quixote': "Le seul de leurs livres qui soit bon est celui qui a fait voir le ridicule de tous les autres." Nor is Voltaire much kinder. In the 'Essais sur les Mœurs' (ch. 177), he paints the typical Spaniard languishing under his mistress's window, and adds: "Tout le monde jouait de la guitare, et la tristesse n'en était pas moins répandue sur la face d'Espagne." The end of the century produced the two immortal works of Beaumarchais, the "Barber of Seville" and the "Marriage of Figaro," which have done so much to render Spain popular. It is curious, as Morel-Fatio remarks, that the name Figaro, which looks so Spanish, is not, and no one has yet discovered its origin.

With our own century the Romanticists took possession of the Peninsula, and the figure of the Spaniard playing his guitar beneath his mistress's lattice receives a pendant of the jealous Spanish woman with her dagger in her garter. Mérimée and Gautier have left brilliant traces of the influence of Spain, the former in his "Théâtre de Clara Gazul" and "Carmen," the latter in his "Tra los Montes." Hugo, as we shall see later, was also deeply affected by that passion for the *couleur locale* which the Romantic School thought they could find best in Spain.

Morel-Fatio concludes this charming study, of which we have been able to give but a bare outline, with the statement that France has too often, from the spirit of disparagement or by simple ignorance, superficially judged or incorrectly interpreted Spain. That country certainly deserves to be impartially studied which barred the Arab's way, saved Christendom at Lepanto, discovered a new world, drilled an incomparable infantry, created in art the most powerful realism, in theology a divine and enrapturing mysticism, in literature 'Don Quixote,' and finally gave to the noble sentiment of honor its finest and haughtiest expression.

The second study is devoted to that delightful little romance, 'The Life of Lazarillo de Tormes.' Every one has read and enjoyed 'Gil Blas,' but few know that 'Lazarillo' is the parent of that long line of novels in the style of rogues of which 'Gil Blas' is the most brilliant specimen. There are many mysteries about the little book—where it was first printed, and who was the author. The pretended first edition of Antwerp of 1553 has been seen by no one; and, until a copy is discovered, we must accept the edition of Burgos, 1554, as the first. The novel is generally attributed, without the slightest reason, to the famous statesman, Diego Hurtado de Mendoza. The first who made this groundless attribution was the Belgian, Valerius Andreas, in his 'Catalogus Clarorum Hispaniæ Scriptorum' (1607), incorporated the next year in A. Schott's 'Hispaniæ Bibliotheca,' where the statement is softened by the use of the word "putative" when speaking of this attribution. Some years previous to this, Father José de Sigüenza, author of the history of the order of Hieronimites, in giving the life of Fray Juan de Ortega, mentions that he was said to have written 'Lazarillo' when a student at Salamanca, and that the rough draft in his own hand was found in his cell. There is absolutely no proof of this statement but the words of Sigüenza himself. There is no ground for attributing the book to either of the persons named above, and the Spanish student still enjoys the possibility of settling this vexed question some day by a lucky find.

Victor Hugo's interest in Spain dates back to his childhood (he was nine years old), when he accompanied his mother to Madrid. They remained there a little over a year. It was while waiting at Bayonne for the convoy that he saw the little Spanish girl whose face was so deeply engraved on his memory, and whom he later introduced in a touching episode of 'Le Dernier Jour d'un Condamné.' His fondness for Spain first manifested itself in the 'Orientales' (1829), and then in "Hernani" the following year. The Spanish element in this famous play is not very large or very true. Eight years later appeared "Ruy Blas," perhaps the best of Hugo's dramas. In the note to this play the author made the most extravagant claim to historical and local accuracy: "Not a detail of public or private life, of interior, furniture, heraldry, etiquette, numbers, or topography, but what is exact." This statement Morel-Fatio has compared with the facts in the case with very amusing results. Hugo obtained his material from two books—the Countess d'Aulnoy's 'Memoirs of the Court of Spain' (not to be confused with her 'Travels,' mentioned above), and the Abbé de Vayrac's 'Present Condition of Spain.' From the former he drew his details of etiquette and palace life, as well as the rôles of the *Queen* and *Ruy Blas;* from the latter, his details of government, administration, genealogies, and heraldry. The 'Memoirs' of the Countess d'Aulnoy deal, however, solely with Marie-Louise d'Orléans, the first wife of Charles II. Now, in "Ruy Blas" the *Queen* is Marie-Anne of Neubourg, the second wife of Charles, to whom Hugo refers the statements of the Countess d'Aulnoy. This is historical accuracy with a vengeance, and is followed by a host of minor errors in the very points in which the author challenges inquiry. The names of the *dramatis personæ* afford some amusing examples, such as the utterly impossible name of *Don Guritan*, and *Montazgo*, which signifies the tax paid for driving cattle from one territory to another. Morel-Fatio says: "Hugo took possession of this word, which undoubtedly seemed to him very Spanish, and adorned with it the officer of the Indian Council. It is about as if in French we should name some one *Fâturage* or *Passage.*" In his verse he says the household of the Queen costs yearly 664,066 ducats, and in his note refers complacently to the work 'Solo Madrid es Corte,' where, he says, those exact figures will be found. What the reader does find there is the sum of 574,866 ducats.

These matters do not detract from the poetical value of the drama, and would be unworthy of notice did not the author expressly vouch for the accuracy of his details. The reader of Morel-Fatio's article will justly infer that it is never safe to trust Hugo in minor matters like these, a conclusion which will be strengthened by a perusal of Biré's 'Victor Hugo avant 1830' (Paris, 1883), a work invaluable for the poet's early life, and in which are rectified a multitude of little errors on the part of Hugo.

PAUL'S SKETCH OF GERMAN PHILOLOGY.

Grundriss der Germanischen Philologie. Herausgegeben von Hermann Paul. I. Lieferung. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner. 1889.

THE general plan of this important work is similar to that of Gröber's 'Grundriss der Romanischen Philologie,' issued by the same house, and already noticed in these columns. What is contemplated is to provide a succinct and authoritative résumé of all that has been done in the various lines of Germanic philology, so that the student can "orient" himself conveniently either in the subject as a whole or in any of its branches. The work appears in large octavo, closely printed, and is to be completed in five or six instalments of about 250 pages each. The different parts of the subject are portioned out among twenty-six specialists, the general editor being Prof. Paul of Freiburg. Of the collaborators all are Germans, Netherlanders, or Scandinavians, with the exception of J. Wright, who is an Englishman.

The work begins with three sections by Paul himself; the first being on the idea and scope, and the second on the history of Germanic philology, while the third is devoted to the methodology of the subject. The fourth section concerns alphabets, the runes being treated by Sievers, the Latin alphabet by Arndt. Then

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follows a very comprehensive fifth section devoted to histories, by various authors, of the different Germanic languages. That part of the history which preceded the ramification of the Germanic tribe, and antedates all existing records, is assigned to Kluge, who also writes the history of English. An appendix to this section will deal with living dialects. The next two will be occupied with mythology and heroic legend, and the eighth will take up the history of the various Germanic literatures. In this connection it is of interest to note that in only three out of ten cases is the history of a literature to be done by the same man that writes the history of the corresponding language. An appendix to this section will deal with popular poetry. The ninth section is to treat of metre, and the tenth of art, which is made to include both the plastic arts and music. Finally, the work is to conclude with four sections upon husbandry (*Wirthschaft*), law, military art, and manners and customs.

Of the work thus planned there is now before us one instalment, embracing the first four sections. The brief introductory section is devoted mainly to justifying the editor's broad conception of "philology," and showing the futility of all attempts to limit the application of the term to any particular department of the "history of civilization." The argument is, that all branches of historical knowledge whatsoever are more or less dependent on the science of written records. Hence it is a matter of convenience how far the history of law, medicine, industry, art, religion, or any other element of human culture, shall be regarded as coming within the domain of the philologist. A real philological classic of our day is Victor Hehn's 'Domestic Plants and Animals in the Transition from Asia to Europe,' though a librarian has been known to catalogue the book as natural history. We may note in passing that Paul's view of philology is substantially in accord with that of Whitney, who defines it as "that branch of knowledge which deals with human speech and all that speech discloses as to the nature and history of man."

The second section is a long and admirable résumé of the history of Germanic philology from the Middle Ages down to the present time. The extensive bibliography and the careful comments of a scholar so able as Paul will render this part of the work invaluable to students. At the close of his retrospect the writer deprecates two evils which, as he justly thinks, stand in the way of a healthy development of Germanic studies hereafter. The first is the partisanship of German scholars which is continually leading them into bitter personal disparagement of the members of opposing "schools." He calls for an abatement of the *odium philologicum*, and urges the need of a more general agreement upon fundamental principles. In this effort of his to put an end to the ridiculous clannishness of German scholars, the scholars of other lands will certainly wish him well; but we fear that his own somewhat caustic treatment of those whom he does not happen to like will not help on the philological millennium. It is surely going too far to say (p. 99) of a man like the late Prof. Scherer that "his critical attempts may be almost without exception characterized as erroneous," or that "his nature did not permit him to produce a well-matured and complete scientific work."

The second of the two evils deprecated is that the growing specialization of scholarship is tending to separate the students of language and the students of literature into two camps, which look with more or less of indifference and even contempt upon each other's operations. Those who concern themselves with phonetics, historical grammar, and the critical study of early texts are often disposed to look upon the students of more modern literature, whose method is somewhat different from their own, as dilettanti; while the latter class return the compliment by regarding the former as pedants absorbed in the form and indifferent to the substance of literary records. Against this tendency Paul very properly raises his voice. The specialization he admits to be in a measure necessary, since the field of philological study is so vast. At the same time he contends that the study of language and the study of literature should, as far as possible, go hand in hand; and that, in any case, the votaries of the one pursuit should indulge in no pharisaical emotions respecting the votaries of the other, but should rather regard them as fellow-workers in a common cause. This preachment of Prof. Paul's is sound and timely, and we hope it may do good both in Germany and in other lands.

For the writing of a chapter upon philological method it would be difficult to think of any one better fitted than the author of the 'Principien der Sprachgeschichte' and the co-editor of Paul and Braune's 'Beiträge.' What he has to say on the subject is rich in suggestion even to the experienced worker, but will be found especially helpful by those who are just setting out in the way of original research. General discussions of method and principle are apt to seem somewhat arid, nor can they, perhaps, avail much in changing habits once formed. But Paul is certainly right in holding that the beginner may save himself much time and much misdirection of energy if, instead of simply imitating a master, and finding out after the lapse of years that he has been imitating the master's weak points along with the strong ones, he will make, as early as possible in his career, a careful study of fundamental principles. Two or three of our author's prescriptions may be specified here. He insists that the philologist of to-day must be well grounded in psychology. He urges particularly the importance of considering *all* the facts pertinent to one's investigation; nothing is to be passed by as unimportant. "To be sure," says he, "the aim is to establish something important and worth knowing; but it betrays the dilettante to pick out deliberately what seems important." With still greater unction, he insists upon the necessity of attending to all possible explanations of the problem under consideration. One is not to make a guess and then go at the collection of facts to confirm it. By so doing the investigator is sure to be beguiled by the prettiness of his own hypothesis, and his work takes on the character of an attorney's brief.

Prof. Paul's bugbear is what he calls "unnützer Hypothesenkram." Against this black beast he loses no opportunity to warn the neophyte, and, to our thinking, makes too much of the matter. Hypotheses are necessary in all scientific work, and whether a particular one is going to be "useless" or not, can often not be told until it has been followed up. There must be more or less of guessing as one goes along, and all that can be demanded is that one keep his guessing and his vanity under the strict guardianship of his scientific intelligence. The maxim of collecting all the pertinent facts before allowing one's self to form a theory has a certain air of wisdom about it, but we imagine that in practice few persons really act on it. Nor, when we consider the progress of knowledge as a whole, can we say that one necessarily wastes his time in following a false lead. If it were highly important for men to get to the North Pole, we should scarcely say that they had wasted their time who had taught us experimentally how *not* to get there. To this should be added the consideration that many a happy scientific discovery has been made by men who found a kingdom while wandering from the trail in search of their fathers' asses. In short, the best regulative against fantastic theorizing is not so much the dread of premature and wrong hypotheses, as the general mental balance which comes of wide knowledge and catholic intellectual interests.

Of the fourth section we have not space to speak in detail. We remark only that this, too, is worthy of the noted scholars whose work it is, and take leave of the first instalment of Paul's 'Grundriss" with the feeling that it is a great work well begun.

Wellington. By George Hooper. Macmillan & Co. 1889.

Words on Wellington. The Duke—Waterloo—The Ball. By Sir William Fraser, Baronet. London: John C. Nimmo. 1889.

MR. HOOPER'S Life of the Duke of Wellington belongs to the series of "English Men of Action," and is necessarily very compendious. It does not attempt to give any new view of the Duke—indeed, that is hardly possible. As a man, his qualities are so distinct and simple that it is difficult to make a mistake about them. As a general, there always has been and probably always will be some dispute as to his rank. Mr. Hooper is of those who would give him the highest. What he has to say about Lord Wolseley's criticism is worth quoting: "Lord Wolseley also asserts that if Napoleon had been the man he was at Austerlitz, he would have won the battle of Waterloo." This is a type of a good deal of military criticism which is a stumbling-block to the wayfaring man. The obvious reply is the one Mr. Hooper makes: "It is a pure hypothesis, and about as reasonable as one which might be framed thus: If Soult or Clausel, instead of Arabi, had commanded the Egyptian army in 1882, Sir Garnet Wolseley would not have won the battle of Tell el-Kebir."

Sir William Fraser's book is a gossipy collection of anecdotes about Wellington, supplemented by the account of the author's discovery of the room in which the ball of Brussels took place, with which the public has been already made familiar through the press. The reasons for identifying the historic ball-room with the old coach-maker's depot seem convincing enough, and the picture of the room shows that "Brunswick's fated chieftain" could not have sat within a "windowed niche of that high Hall," because the room was a low one (thirteen feet high), and, although the windows are deeply sunk in the wall, the lower edge of each recess is five feet from the floor. The Duke of Brunswick sitting in one of these would not have presented such a picture as Byron would have cared to immortalize. Sticklers for local accuracy in poetry may add, therefore, one more count to their already voluminous indictment against Byron. In the long run, the discovery of the old coach-maker's depot will probably not affect the poet's credit very much.

Sir William Fraser's book contains a number of good anecdotes, some of them well told, one at least very badly. This is the anecdote of Gen. Grant which has attracted so much attention. The author, instead of giving it once for all, in its correct form, gives, as if true, a grossly impossible story at page 79, which, he says, when he heard it, "fascinated" him, as well it might, and then at page 170 he gives, as

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he says, with "regret," the real version. The first story is as follows:

"Gen. Grant was invited to dine at Apsley House by the second Duke of Wellington. A most distinguished party assembled to meet him. During a pause, in the middle of dinner, the ex-President, addressing the Duke at the head of the table, said: 'My Lord, I have heard that your father was a military man. Was that the case?'"

Having put this libel in circulation, the author, at page 170, after expressing, as we have said, his regret that he ever took the chance of spoiling so good a story by inquiring what really took place, coolly says: "I must now, in the interests of truth, state what the Duke told me happened." It seems that Grant, during the dinner, "kept trying to get him to say what was the greatest number of men that his father had commanded in the field." The Duke, with his well-known cleverness, added: "I saw what he was at. If I had said forty or fifty thousand men, he would have replied, 'Well, I have commanded a hundred thousand,' so I was determined not to answer his questions as to this, and I succeeded." It appears, therefore, that the Duke, because he chose to conjecture that Grant would be boastful and uncivil, was so rude as to refuse to answer a perfectly proper question addressed to him by a guest. The story does not shed any light whatever on the character of Grant. It might be told, however, to illustrate certain peculiarities in that of the second Duke of Wellington.

An anecdote relating to the iron shutters on Apsley House, which every one who has been to London has noticed, we have never seen before in print. The shutters were put up after the windows had been broken at the time of the Duke's unpopularity in 1832. Some years afterwards, when he was in great public favor, "a great crowd waited in Piccadilly, and gave him a tremendous ovation on his return home. The Duke took not the slightest notice of their cheering, but, just previously to entering his gate, he pointed with his right hand calmly to the iron shutters. He then took his hat off, with a mockery of gratitude, and entered his house."

The following is a good anecdote of George IV., though what it has to do with Wellington we do not know. When the news of Napoleon's death reached London, some official announced it to the King in these words: "It is my duty to inform your Majesty that your greatest enemy is dead." "Is she, by ——!" said the King.

There is much good reading in Sir William Fraser's book, and the subject is one in which the author has a personal and family interest through his father, who was one of Wellington's officers. It is injured by a certain tone of awe-struck admiration which, however proper as a matter of feeling, is not an aid to narration. In fact, it is the strongest proof of Wellington's greatness that one is able to read such a book without a sneaking desire to pull down the hero from the pedestal on which he is put.

The Scientific Spirit of the Age, and Other Pleas and Discussions. By Frances Power Cobbe. Boston: George H. Ellis.

THE article which names Miss Cobbe's new volume should be read in the light of her own admission in her preface that it is not intended for judicial discussion, but is avowedly a one-sided plea. She is writing, she tells us, "exclusively on the adverse side, and has left the glorification of the modern Diana of the Ephesians to the mixed multitude of her followers." With this understanding, the article is less preposterous than it would otherwise be, but it is still sufficiently removed from any fairness or fruitfulness to make us wish it had not been written. This style of writing may have its place in a young people's debating society, but Miss Cobbe has done too much good work to fall into it in her later years. Although she has appealed from so many current theological forms of thought, she writes of science with genuine theological rancor. She has taken a conspicuous part in the famous vivisection controversy, and has become so embittered by it that science and vivisection have come to be for her nearly synonymous terms. Whatever her theme, she gravitates to this fixed idea. Her arraignment is almost exclusively an arraignment of biological—we might say medical—science. Against our American practitioners in particular she brings a railing accusation, suggestive of the possibility that some cruel wag from this side of the Atlantic has been putting a joke on her. "An eminent American physician" is credited with the remark, "In my country the ardor of scientific research is rapidly overriding the proper benevolent objects of my profession. The cure of disease is becoming quite a secondary consideration to the achievement of a correct diagnosis to be verified by a successful post-mortem." One of the worst dangers which the student of science is, to Miss Cobbe's thinking, likely to fall into, is the adoption of materialistic views on all subjects. In this connection we have the arrant nonsense of the following passage:

"He need not become a theoretic or speculative Materialist—that is another risk which may or may not be successfully eliminated. But he will almost inevitably fall into practical Materialism. Of the two sides of human life, his scientific training will compel him to think always in the first place of the lower. The material (or, as our fathers would call it, the *carnal*) fact will be uppermost in his mind, and the spiritual meaning thereof more or less out of sight. He will view his mother's tears not as expressions of her sorrow, but as solutions of muriates and carbonates of soda and of phosphates of lime, and he will reflect that they were caused not by his heartlessness, but by cerebral pressure on her lachrymal glands. When she dies, he will peep and botanize upon her grave, not with the poet's sense of the sacrilegiousness of such ill-placed curiosity, but with the serene conviction of the meritoriousness of accurate observation among the scientifically interesting 'flora' of a cemetery."

One is strongly tempted to characterize such stuff as this by a certain British monosyllable which is now often heard among us.

An apparent atrophy of Darwin's taste for music and poetry as he grew old is made much of by Miss Cobbe. She returns to it again and again with eager satisfaction. A circumstance due wholly to Darwin's intense engrossment in special studies, and which the engrossment in metaphysics or theology has paralleled much more frequently than engrossment in science, is treated as if it were the inevitable result of scientific studies. Darwin's character, in full view of its limitations, did not do much to discredit biological science.

The other essays in this volume render the suspicion unavoidable that the habit of writing has with Miss Cobbe outlasted inspiration. Even the essay on "Reformed Judaism" smacks of the literary venture more than of a moral purpose. It raises the question whether reformed Judaism may not be made the rallying point of modern Theism, and gives a favorable answer; but it is much more likely that reformed Jews will rally to a Theism which has not avowedly a Jewish or Christian basis than that Theists of Christian antecedents will rally to a Jewish centre. The essays on "The Education of the Emotions," "Thoughts about Thinking," and "To Know or Not to Know" are more remarkable for the poverty of their invention than for anything else.

The concluding essay, "The Town Mouse and the Country Mouse," is much pleasanter than any other in the book. It discusses the relative advantages of life in the country and the town, and what can be said on either side is said very gracefully. But the discussion being limited to the opposition of a London clubman and an English country Squire, it is not particularly helpful to the average American. Six months of one and half-a-dozen of the other would seem to be a more rational solution than either to the exclusion of the other, if the country six months can be in one's own house. Six months of country boarding is not a consummation to be wished. It should be remarked that Miss Cobbe's "Country Mouse" is her own private mouse. She has no praise for the hunts and shootings which constitute for English country gentlemen much of the charm of country life. Had she gone into this she might have found more cruelty in sport than in vivisection. She has a word of protest against the pigeon-shooting at Hurlingham.

The Life of Sidney, Earl of Godolphin, K.G., Lord High Treasurer of England, 1702 to 1710. By the Hon. Hugh Elliot. Longmans, Green & Co. 8vo, pp. 425.

LORD GODOLPHIN, says his biographer, was "a man who was undoubtedly great, but who, as every reader of English history will admit, is much less known to the public generally than are most of his distinguished contemporaries." The political revolution by which Godolphin's administration was overturned, and Harley and St. John came into power, is one of the most picturesque and best-known incidents in the political history of England; but the personality of the man who was thus displaced from power, is, it must be admitted, an indistinct and shadowy one to most readers.

The character which Godolphin really bears as a statesman is, we think, that of a rather timid person, a man of detail, with no large policy and, indeed, deficient in strength and fixedness of principle. Sir Hugh Elliot has endeavored, and not without success, to shake this judgment. For the early part of Godolphin's career, we cannot say that the popular opinion is materially affected. The account here given of his early years and his public life through the reign of William III. confirms the common notion that he was a shifty, vacillating man, a good administrator, but with no positive attachment to either person or party or set of principles. An example is given (p. 158) in his acquiescing in a request of the Queen (Mary) in regard to certain pensions, in which the admission is frankly made that "for the sake of appearances he committed an act which he strongly condemned." From the time, however, of his reaching the highest station, as head of the Government during the greater part of Queen Anne's reign, there appears very little in his conduct to condemn. The author seems wholly candid and fair with his readers, and shows no disposition to extenuate; but the questions that arise at this period are rather in regard to judgment and expediency than right and wrong. The author's aim is to show that Lord Godolphin was not merely an able administrator, as is universally admitted, but a statesman of a higher type. In the war of the Spanish succession, he maintains that Godolphin alone discerned the true line of military policy in his scheme for coöperating with the insurgent Protestants of southern France; and that this plan would have conducted to

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great results. In regard to the union with Scotland, the great legislative act of his administration, the credit is given to Godolphin of pointing out the method by which the end was accomplished, in his passage of the Act of Security. It was in this, we are told (page 283), "that Godolphin most signally displayed his greatness, and in which he outshone all his contemporaries, not even excluding the renowned Somers. It was not the destination, but the path to the destination, which he indicated and pursued, and which, in spite of every evil prediction, led to the greatest legislative achievement of the age—the English and Scotch union."

Another point of interest is in Godolphin's relation to Marlborough:

"History has been fond of placing Godolphin in a position very secondary to Marlborough, of treating him as a confidential agent or an honest and industrious head clerk who executed at home the policy which Marlborough directed from abroad. Marlborough's letters are a complete refutation of this mistaken notion. They afford a striking proof of Godolphin's intrinsic and independent value. Every line proves that Marlborough looked upon Godolphin as another self, as a person whose genius was as transcendent in politics as his own was in war" (p. 315).

The great importance of Godolphin's administration, apart from special events of war and legislation, is in the fact that it formed a period of transition from the mixed system of government, controlled by the personality of the sovereign, to the system of party government. This explains, too, we think, much of the inconsistency and apparent insincerity in Godolphin's career. We find some excellent remarks upon this point (p. 217), although its full bearing is not clearly pointed out. Godolphin and Marlborough made an attempt—the last of any moment—to govern without party. It failed; they were forced to associate themselves strictly with the Whig party, and from this time, with rare and short exceptions, the Government of England has been always that of a party. "He has been reproached with disloyalty to the Queen and to the Tory party, with timidity and with fickleness. He was, in fact, engaged in the futile attempt of balancing himself where all equilibrium was impossible."

Godolphin seems to have come to an understanding of the necessities of the case sooner than Marlborough: "Godolphin had long seen the fallacy of the scheme to which Marlborough still so closely adhered. He had abandoned it, and now every effort of his life was concentrated in reconciling the Queen and Marlborough to the Whigs." When the work had been completed, when the Godolphin administration had become a Whig one pure and simple, he was near the end of his power and his life. The Queen was by sentiment and conviction a Tory, and a Tory administration soon came in power. In the events which led to this change, in which Godolphin has been much censured, our author vindicates his dignity and clear-sightedness. Of an earlier crisis (1706) he says: "He loyally bore the odium which should have attached to his mistress, and we believe that to this day his honest attempt to shield her has had the effect of weighting his character with that charge of insincerity so loudly proclaimed against him by the Whigs" (p. 319).

This volume, readable and handsomely printed, nevertheless lacks essential aids to its use. There is no index, the table of contents is extremely meagre, and even the running-titles give very little assistance.

Caroline Schlegel and Her Friends. By Mrs. Alfred Sidgwick. Scribner & Welford. 1889.

MOST persons who have any acquaintance with the life and character of Caroline Schlegel would probably deem her a very unengaging subject for an elaborate biographical memoir. A woman who made trouble wherever she went, who was known in the circle of Goethe and Schiller as Dame Lucifer, who was notoriously lax in her relations with men, and who, withal, whatever her talent, did nothing the least memorable in a literary way, would hardly seem to deserve at this late date the handsome monument here erected to her memory. In short, we cannot help regarding it as a debatable question whether the work was worth doing; but if it was, Mrs. Sidgwick deserves the credit of having done it well; and if she does not compel sympathy for her unwomanly heroine, she at least gives a vivid picture of a curious episode in the history of German literature.

A short sketch of Dame Lucifer's career will suffice to show what manner of person she was. She was born in 1763, her father being Prof. Michaelis, a Göttingen Orientalist of some repute in his day. Her early letters suggest a talented coquette without high principle or steadfastness of character. In 1784 she married Georg Böhmer, a Clausthal doctor with whom she led a dreary existence for four years. Released from her captivity, as she called it, by the death of her husband in 1788, she returned with her children to Göttingen, where she captivated the young student A. W. Schlegel. Later, after living for a time with a brother in Marburg and quarrelling with him, she betook herself to Mainz, where her busy tongue helped to break up the household of the famous republican Georg Forster, whose wife, Therese Heyne, had been her intimate friend at Göttingen. Living in Mainz at the time of the French occupation, she identified herself with the Red Republicans, of whom Forster was a leading spirit, and was known to fame as Forster's "amie." At the same time, having failed to elicit a proposal of marriage from one Tatter with whom she had fallen in love, she resentfully decided to "amuse herself" by becoming the mistress of a certain Frenchman otherwise unknown to history. In the spring of 1793 she was imprisoned for her republican leanings, and suffered great indignities at the hands of her countrymen. Upon regaining her liberty a few months later, she found herself without resources, bankrupt in reputation, and an object of general aversion. From this extremity she was rescued by Schlegel, who had for some time been living in Amsterdam, where he was engaged as private tutor. Schlegel had repeatedly warned his recreant lady-love by letter to have nothing to do with the Mainz Republicans; but now, with a forbearance truly "romantic" (seeing that she was about to become a mother as the result of neglecting his counsel), he got a leave of absence, hurried to her relief, and placed her in retirement under the charge of his brother Friedrich, then a profligate student at Leipzig. It is significant for the character of the younger Schlegel that this woman in these circumstances exercised a decidedly elevating influence upon him.

Two years later, the elder Schlegel returned from Holland and made Frau Böhmer his wife *de facto*. After the lapse of another year, the pair were married in church from motives of policy, and settled in Jena, where for the next few years Frau Schlegel helped her husband in his literary labors, wrote a little occasionally on her own account, and kept open house for the coterie of the *Athenæum*—the Romantics, as Mrs. Sidgwick somewhat strangely calls them. By 1802 she had tired of Schlegel, and by general consent transferred herself to Schelling, the formalities of divorce and marriage following a year or so later at the convenience of the parties concerned. As the wife of Schelling she seems to have led an exemplary domestic life, and to have tried to atone for the aberrations of her stormy past. She died in 1809.

Mrs. Sidgwick's memoir is based upon the published collection of Caroline's letters and upon the well-known works of Haym and Brandes. It is written in a judicial tone, and takes pains to avoid a strenuous application to the Romanticists of moral standards which they deliberately rejected. Of this we certainly do not complain; but the simple truth is, when all allowances have been made that the indulgent muse of history may reasonably make after a lapse of nearly a hundred years, that Caroline and her friends, so far at least as concerns the period here portrayed, were a "sorry set," and no faithful account of them can be very delightful reading. At this distance in time, one could tolerate the sickening details of private life with very good grace if only these things were connected in some way with noteworthy literary performance. But such is not the case. Mrs. Sidgwick, indeed, devotes a chapter to 'Lucinde,' and another to the *Athenæum;* but 'Lucinde' is an insufferably silly book, of which its author himself soon became ashamed, and the *Athenæum* fell flat from the beginning, and died without perceptibly affecting public opinion or the course of German literature. The three volumes contain nothing that any one would now think of reading unless compelled thereto by some sort of duty.

The Federal Government of Switzerland: An Essay on the Constitution, by Bernard Moses, Ph.D. 12mo, 256 pp. Oakland, Cal.: Pacific Press Pub. Co. 1889.

THE author has here assembled in small space the fundamental ideas of central government as found, not only in Switzerland, but in important confederations of both hemispheres. In fact, so many details are given respecting the institutions of the United States, Canada, Mexico, and the South American republics, that one is inclined at times to look back to see if he has made sure of the title. This, however, does not detract from the value of the book. It is evidently an outgrowth of lectures on comparative constitutional history, and the matter thus brought into juxtaposition, especially the more unusual references to Spanish America, will be found useful to the student.

An historical introduction on the rise of Swiss Federalism is followed by a general chapter on Distribution of Power, in which ancient and modern instances are adduced to show that governments have a tendency to centralize in respect to locality, and to expand as regards the number of persons who control them. The parts devoted to legislature, executive, and judiciary are particularly full of details of other countries, though the remainder of the book, touching foreign and internal relations, army, finance, and general welfare, is devoted more exclusively to Switzerland.

The work does not invite much controversy, since it keeps closely to the matter found in the constitutions, often quoting entire sections, and follows the best commentators. It does not attempt to go outside of Federal Government, leaving local institutions for others. Two slight misstatements of fact should be corrected in passing. On p. 110, Mexico, Venezuela, and Switzerland are classed together as giving Senators and Representatives equal

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terms—two years in the first two, and three in Switzerland—whereas the peculiarity of the Swiss upper chamber lies in the fact that not only are Senators paid by the States which send them, but the term of office is under State control, and varies from one to three years. On p. 197 the Government monopoly of gunpowder is made to realize "about 500,000 francs annually." The net income for 1888 was 165,905 francs, while in 1884 it was but 88,000, and the average for thirty years would not much exceed 100,000 francs. This, however, does not materially alter the author's comment that the undertaking is unimportant as a source of revenue.

A Treatise on Coöperative Savings and Loan Associations. By Seymour Dexter. D. Appleton & Co.

In this work Judge Dexter has done for the building and loan associations of this State what Wrigley did long ago for those of Pennsylvania. For while this system of coöperation, in its essential features, is the same in all the States, the statutes differ, and Wrigley writes more closely to the law of Pennsylvania, as Dexter does to the law of New York. Judge Dexter's book is very timely now that these associations are rapidly growing in number in New York. It is so easy to start a building and loan association, and so common for the majority of the officers of such an association to have only the vaguest knowledge of the system itself, that a little book of this kind, which discusses the subject clearly and concisely, must do a great deal of good. The manner in which these associations assist members to save money and to own homes is explained in simple language; the division of profits between the different series of an association is illustrated; statistics of the work of the associations in the different States are presented; and the very important subject of premiums, under the different plans in use for paying them, is discussed. Full directions are given about all the details of organizing, with instructions about keeping accounts, and there are copies of all the necessary blanks in the way of mortgages, assignments, notices of withdrawal, stock certificates, etc.

In regard to premiums, the author says: "The association should discourage the bidding of large premiums." That is, he would make the premium simply a measure of the competition for the money in the treasury, and not hold out the argument that the measure of an association's success is the size of the premium it secures. Of the different plans devised for paying the premium, the author gives preference to what he calls "the New York premium plan," which he thus describes:

"The borrower, at the time of his bidding, clearly understands that whatever premium he bids is in the nature of a bonus, and that the amount that he bids is deducted from his loan at the time; and he gives security to the association for $200 a share and pays interest thereon, and the whole premium transaction is closed."

This scheme he defends on the ground of its simplicity. But in every coöperative scheme the idea of strict coöperation should never be lost sight of. If a member of one of these associations pays a premium for a loan with the understanding that it is to run for about ten years, but finds it convenient to pay off that loan in five years, should not a part of his premium be returned to him? There is nothing unfair in "the New York premium plan," when the arrangement is understood in advance by the borrower. But should not coöperation be something more than merely "fair"? The plan of refunding a part of the premium to withdrawing members has been found to work well in practice, and the best way (in effect) to do this is undoubtedly to have the premium paid, not in advance, but in monthly instalments, as additional interest, which it really is. Judge Dexter himself praises this plan so warmly that it is somewhat confusing to follow him to his conclusion that "the New York plan" is the best.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Acton, F. Songs and Sonnets. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Allen, Prof. A. V. G. Jonathan Edwards. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Ashby, Dr. H., and Wright, Dr. G. A. The Diseases of Children, Medical and Surgical. Longmans, Green & Co. $6.00.
Bickford, L. H. A Hopeless Case. Chicago: Chas. H. Kerr & Co. 30 cents.
Biddle, H. D. Extracts from the Journal of Elizabeth Drinker, 1759-1807. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Billman, I. Bluebird Notes: Poems. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Bindley, T. H. Tertulliani Apologeticus adversus Gentes pro Christianis. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 6 shillings.
Bray, C. The Philosophy of Necessity: 3d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Brief Digest of the First Six Volumes of American State Reports. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Brundage, Miss F. Little Maids. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Cahn, W. Das Reichgesetz über die Erwerbung und den Verlust der Reichs- und Staatsangehörigkeit vom 1. Juni 1870. Berlin: J. Guttentag.
Child, Prof. F. J. The English and Scotch Popular Ballads. Part VI. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Chute, H. N. Elementary Practical Physics. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.25.
Costellow, F. H. The Sale of Mrs. Adral. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Dabney, V. Gold That Did Not Glitter. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Dale, A. An Eerie He and She. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
De Garmo, Prof. C. The Essentials of Method. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 50 cents.
Dering, R. G. Giraldi, or the Curse of Love. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Fonblanque, A. de. How We Are Governed: A Handbook of the Constitution, Government, Laws, and Power of the British Empire. 16th ed. Frederick Warne & Co. 75 cents.
Haller, G. Le Bleuet. An Alsatian Romance. Brentano's. 25 cents.
Hamerton, P. G. French and English: A Comparison. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften. Part I. Abbau—Aktiengesellschaften. Jena: Gustav Fischer; New York: F. W. Christern. Also, G. E. Stechert.
Heaven, Louise P. Chata and Chinita. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Heimburg, W. Her Only Brother. Thos. Y. Crowell & Co. 50 cents.
Irving, A. Chemical and Physical Studies in the Metamorphism of Rocks. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Kendall, May. "Such is Life." Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Larrabee, Rev. E. A. The Sacramental Teaching of the Lord's Prayer. Milwaukee, Wis.: The Young Churchman Co.
Little, Rev. W. J. K. Sunlight and Shadow in the Christian Life. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.75.
Long, G. The Thoughts of the Emperor Marcus Aurelius Antoninus. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
MacDonald, G. Unspoken Sermons. 3d series. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Macleod, H. D. The Theory of Credit. Vol. I. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Malden, Mrs. S. F. Jane Austen. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.00.
Marenholtz-Bülow, Baroness. The Child and Child-Nature. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.50.
McCaskey, J. P. Franklin Square Song Collection. No. 6. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Milligan, Rev. W. The Book of Revelation. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Morfill, W. R. Grammar of the Russian Language. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 6 shillings.
Morse, J. T., jr. Benjamin Franklin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Newsholme, Dr. A. School Hygiene. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Oliphant, Mrs. Lady Car; the Sequel of a Life. Harper & Bros. 30 cents.
Our Family Ways. Milwaukee, Wis.: The Young Churchman Co.
Pearson, F. W. Her Sacrifice. Minerva Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Publishers' Trade-List Annual. 1889. New York: *Publishers' Weekly.*
Purinton, Prof. D. B. Christian Theism: its Claims and Sanctions. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Robert, Lt.-Col. H. M. Pocket Manual of Rules of Order for Deliberative Assemblies. 100th thousand. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 75 cents.
Sackett, Dr. S. P. Mother, Nurse, and Infant. H. Campbell & Co.
Sause, J. The Art of Dancing. 5th ed. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Scott, Sir W. Marmion. Edited by Thomas Bayne. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 3 shillings.
Sidney, Margaret. Our Town. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Smith, H. Century of American Literature: Benjamin Franklin to James Russell Lowell. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.75.
Standish, B. H. Beyond or Here: A Poem. West Union, Iowa: Blackmun & McClintock.
Tincker, Mary A. Two Coronets. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.

JUST PUBLISHED:

Suetonius's Lives of the Cæsars. Books First and Second. Edited, with Introduction and Commentary, by Harry Thurston Peck, Ph.D., Professor in Columbia College. 12mo, 215 pp., cloth. Teachers' price, $1.20.

Baldwin's Handbook of Psychology—SENSES AND INTELLECT. By James Mark Baldwin, Ph.D., Professor of Philosophy in Lake Forest University. 8vo, 343 pp., cloth. $2.25.

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